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ABSTRACT

Educational developments in Mexico, South America, and Southeast Asia are covered in five seminar papers. In addition, country educational profiles are presented on Mexico, Hong Kong, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Indonesia. In "International Students from Southeast Asia," John F. Brohm considers the following aspects of evaluating Southeast Asian applicants for admission to U.S. colleges: language, financial capability, their local facilities for higher education, the comparability of local and U.S. education, and student motivations. In "Overseas Education: Mexico," Rene S. Greenwald discusses recent political, social, and economic developments in Mexico that have or will have an effect on education, along with the historical relationship between Mexico and the United States and study abroad programs. In "Signs of Revolution in South American Higher Education," Daniel Heyduk reviews changes in South American countries that affect higher education. Joan H. Joshi, in "On the Recruitment of Foreign Students," provides suggestions for institutions regarding what to do before looking abroad for students, what to do during the recruitment process, and what do avoid. Finally, J. F. Brohm discusses the need for literature for foreign students on the quality of U.S. institutions in "Informational Literature on U.S. Educational Institutions for the Foreign Student." (SW)

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A WORLD HIGHER EDUCATION COMMUNIQUÉ SPECIAL REPORT

Overseas Educational Developments, 1981:

- Mexico
- South America
- Southeast Asia

HE 015 503

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SOUTHEAST ASIA
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INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS FROM SOUTHEAST ASIA

John F. Brohm

I

The U.S. political and military debacle that occurred in the former Indo-China countries of Southeast Asia (Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam) in 1975, coupled with other important developments elsewhere in the world, has tended to divert U.S. official and public interest away from all of Southeast Asia during the past six or seven years. This diversion has in turn obscured the rise of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) as an important regional grouping for economic and political solidarity, the intensive development of U.S. business interests and commercial relationships with Southeast Asia, and the continued growth in educational exchange between the most important Southeast Asian nations and the United States.* These intensifying relationships, which in themselves are almost certainly of greater long-term significance than the temporarily numbing effects of the Communist takeover in Indo-China, are adequately appreciated only by those who are directly involved in these new patterns of international interaction.

Among those who are so involved are the American college and university officials whose task it is to receive applications from thousands of Southeast Asians who wish to study at their institutions. How should they respond to these applications? What factors should be taken into consideration in making an evaluation of the applicant? Should additional applications of this kind be encouraged? How should one distinguish among them on a national basis? These are the kinds of questions that inevitably arise in the minds of responsible institutional officials. Let us take a step backward, therefore, and strive for some sort of overview of what is taking place before analyzing some of the specifics that should govern responsible handling of this situation at the level of the American admissions office.

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*By 1979/80, about 27,000 Southeast Asian students were already in the USA, according to the IIE publication, Open Doors.

II

Sources of Southeast Asian Interest in American Higher Education

There appear to be three or four major factors involved in motivating the increasing numbers of Southeast Asian students who seek higher education in the United States. Two of these are fundamental and long-term in nature; one or two are of more immediate origin and perhaps of only temporary significance.

Language

The most fundamental factor is language--both the language of instruction and the primary language used by the host society. If one were to look backward into the history of Southeast Asian culture, one would see that the geographic fragmentation of the area contributed importantly to a similar ethnic fragmentation so that no one of the indigenous peoples of the area was ever successful in imposing any kind of lasting political domination over a significant number of the competing political entities. Thus no single local language ever came to prevail over the whole area.

The principal land-form of Southeast Asia produces a succession of shallow seas dotted by islands of all sizes that together constitute the largest, by far, of all the archipelagoes of the world. The republics of Indonesia and the Philippines, plus East Malaysia, are made up of elements in this vast archipelago and the seas and straits that separate the thousands of islands from one another. In addition to the islands, there is a sizable peninsula jutting southward from China and barely separated, at its southern extremity, from the second largest Indonesian island, Sumatra. On the mainland portion of Southeast Asia, the overall environment is similarly conducive to the isolation of relatively small groups--especially in historic and prehistoric times when the technology of travel was primitive. Such isolation breeds ethnic diversity, and fundamental to that diversity is language itself. Thai and Malay or Thai and Khmer live side by side, in a national sense, but they speak languages that stem from very different stocks which relate them ethnically to distant peoples, not to one another.

During the colonial era, which for Southeast Asia began in the early 16th century and drew to a close shortly after World War II, European powers and the United States did manage to bring together ethnic groups under one flag, but unfortunately the powers involved were themselves diverse, both nationally and linguistically. Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, Britain, France, and the United States all established colonies at one time or another, with only Thailand among all Southeast Asians escaping outright colonial status. But even the Thai were forced to focus their attention on the British and the French, the neighboring colonial overlords. Like their Southeast Asian peers, the Thai elite learned English or French as a means of dealing with their dangerous neighbors. As a whole; however, Southeast Asia remained as deeply divided by its colonial status as it was during the pre-colonial era.

With the conclusion of World War II and the gradual phasing out of the colonial governments--not without much bloodshed in several cases--Southeast Asians had a new opportunity to take stock of one another as former colonies became new nations. They needed to deal with one another on a scale never approached before and for every conceivable purpose.

Partly because the Indonesian war for independence against the Dutch was a bitter one, and so the use of the Dutch language by free Indonesians became socially unacceptable, and partly because the U.S. withdrawal from the Philippines and the British withdrawal from Burma, Malaysia and Singapore were relatively orderly and without recourse to force of arms on the part of the indigenous peoples, English became the most acceptable international language to virtually all Southeast Asians outside the former French possessions. Since those countries are now themselves isolated politically from the rest of Southeast Asia, English is the principal means of international communication in this part of the world. This is true not only for relations with countries outside Southeast Asia, but also for international relations within the Southeast Asian area. This point cannot be emphasized too strongly. It is because the English language has surfaced as the major international language of Southeast Asia that no member of the Southeast Asian elite, nor any person who aspires to membership in that elite, can afford not to learn English to the very best of his ability. To fail to do so is to allow oneself to be identified with a national status only and to accept reduced opportunities as a result of that personal limitation.

For most Southeast Asians, therefore, the decision to go abroad for higher education tends to focus their interest on English-speaking countries. It is not simply a matter of their being able to study there with greater facility through their previous educational experience with English, but simultaneously a chance to combine their expensive overseas education with the means to improve their command of the principal international language. Even if nothing more significant were to come from the adventure than a greatly improved proficiency in English, the investment would probably be considered worthwhile.

Quality of Education

The former colonial masters of Southeast Asia took different views of their responsibilities for educating their colonial subjects. To varying degrees these views reflected the circumstances under which colonization took place, the character of the exploitation that followed, and the roles that distinguished the political master from his colonial subject. To a significant degree they also reflected attitudes toward education, and especially higher education, as they existed in the metropolitan homeland. The results differed from country to country. U.S. influence in the Philippines, for example, produced a relatively large number of privately sponsored institutions of higher education, many of them proprietary in nature, while at the other extreme the Portuguese and the Dutch virtually ignored higher education for their subjects. After World War II, Indonesia, the fifth largest nation in the world in terms of population, was without a single institution of higher education providing specifically for the indigenous inhabitants of the country.

In the 36 years since World War II, there has been a fairly rapid proliferation of diverse new institutions in Southeast Asia and a general expansion of educational facilities at all levels. Some of this has been much too rapid for ideal results, but there is an obvious difference in the need to provide education for citizens of new nations and that for producing functionaries for various colonial bureaucracies, which was most often the purpose of colonial education. The creation of considerable numbers of relatively expensive institutions of higher education is not something that can easily be achieved by young nations which are almost all examples of what are frequently known as "less-developed countries" (LDCs). Thus the great majority of postsecondary colleges and universities in this part of the world will not readily stand comparison with those found in the United States. This is more particularly the case in some countries than in others, but even in Thailand, where careful plans to provide some form of higher education for all who are motivated to seek it have been built into the ministerial budgets, the results may be daunting to those who seek higher status through effective postsecondary education. Ramkhamhaeng University, for example, an open-admissions institution sponsored by the Thai government, currently enrolls over 300,000 students. Even though the faculty may be as strong as that of more selective Thai universities, and though its plant may be competitive in some ways (library services for example), there is simply no way in which such a volume of actively enrolled students could be accommodated on the campus and in the classroom so that comparably effective learning could take place.

For these and other historical reasons, it is quite common for Southeast Asians who are financially able to seek higher education abroad. Others, who have outstanding academic aptitudes but who are inadequately financed, also seek education abroad through scholarship applications. Among all such applicants the lure of the United States is naturally considerable. This has been true for Hong Kong, the Philippines, and Thailand for some time, but the same trend is now beginning to intensify in such countries as Malaysia, Indonesia and Singapore, some of which have had a predominantly Commonwealth orientation in the past, and for this change there are two main explanations.

Expenses and Flexibility in International Education

With little more than the stroke of a pen, the present government of the United Kingdom has transformed the costs of education for foreign students there from moderately expensive to genuinely prohibitive except for the very, very rich. It is not only private individuals who have been affected by these changed circumstances but whole governments and their educational schemes. The Malaysian government has been particularly affected because not only have Malaysian students constituted the largest foreign student contingent in the United Kingdom for some years past, but many of them are scholarship holders from Malaysian government agencies. Through such means the government is endeavoring to insure that deserving ethnic Malays will receive opportunities for social advancement through higher education in order to bring them abreast of Malaysian Chinese in their professional status. The new and much higher costs of attending institutions in the United Kingdom--and in Australia as well--have caused both Malaysians and Singaporeans to explore alternative educational opportunities in the United States. In so doing, some have been pleasantly surprised.

This surprise relates to the second aspect of the problem--the relative inflexibility of Commonwealth education compared to that of the United States. U.S. institutions use the credit-unit system of measuring academic achievement which allows for the relatively easy transferability of credit. Using this system not only enables students to transfer readily from one institution to another but also makes it possible to change majors without loss of too much credit for courses taken which have applicability to the newly chosen curriculum. It also makes it possible to tailor the study program of an individual student to his specific needs in a way that is generally impossible in Commonwealth institutions where fixed curricula must be followed with relatively little variation.

Another element in this picture is general admissions flexibility. Admission to Commonwealth institutions is typically through public examinations. Preparation for these examinations, which differs somewhat from country to country, forces most applicants to spend some preliminary time in the host country studying at the advanced secondary or pre-university level. This then becomes an added expense, either to the individual or to his sponsor.

Thus there is an increasing willingness to consider U.S. higher education even among those Southeast Asian countries which previously favored education in the United Kingdom or elsewhere in the British Commonwealth. But these changes in orientation have been accepted with some reluctance and with a residual skepticism about an educational system which is characterized by so much institutional autonomy.

Other important factors include the impact of U.S. companies on the local scene in Southeast Asia and the interest in U.S. forms of business administration these have generated. The constant flow of Vietnamese "refugees" to Southeast Asian countries of first asylum, most of them seeking a better life in the United States, also inevitably influences the thinking of those who contemplate higher education abroad as a more suitable alternative to education in their own countries. And in spite of some expansion in higher education there remain places like Hong Kong, Macau, Malaysia and Singapore where the capacity of local institutions is still too small to accommodate more than a small fraction of those eligible for higher education. Finally, it is well known that some U.S. institutions are eager to have foreign applicants of all kinds and actively encourage such applications for their own purposes. All these have a bearing on the increased flow of Southeast Asian students to the United States.

III

The Major Contributors of International Students

Against this limited and necessarily oversimplified background, we can now consider some of the practical aspects of evaluating Southeast Asian applicants for U.S. college and university admission. The important question is the actual nationality, or rather the nationalities, of those who may be involved.

The three Communist countries of Southeast Asia are already represented on U.S. campuses by some of the refugees who fled from their Indo-China homelands since 1975. Among them are a large number of Vietnamese and a very few Lao and Cambodians. But these are refugees, or at least immigrants. Some of them do pose a special admissions problem since they may have had most or all of their education in Indo-China, especially the Vietnamese. But the prospect of receiving applications from students currently living in any of the three countries is nil at this time and thus, for practical purposes, outside the scope of our consideration.

Burma is also outside the scope of this paper simply because the capricious policies of the Burmese government do not encourage student movement abroad except in rare and special circumstances. A self-sponsored applicant living in Burma not only must have financial resources outside the country but must also be prepared to give up Burmese citizenship as part of the price for being allowed to go abroad.

The Sultanate of Brunei on the island of Borneo, or Kalimantan, has the highest per capita income of any state in Southeast Asia and a complete lack of higher educational facilities. At the same time; however, it remains a British Protectorate--at least until 1983--and is unquestionably the most British-oriented political entity remaining in this part of the world. Only the very few ethnic Chinese living in Brunei would be likely to contemplate a U.S. higher education.

There remain, then, the five ASEAN nations of Southeast Asia--Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand, all of which presently have significant numbers of students in the United States and will probably send additional numbers in the future. In addition, it is logical to consider the British Crown Colony of Hong Kong and the Portuguese territory of Macau as elements in the same picture, even though they are geographically part of China. These two small enclaves have been acting as important links in the business, communications and financial networks of Southeast Asia for so long that they can be considered as elements in a common environment. Like the ASEAN nations they also send students abroad and to the United States, and from Hong Kong in particular they come in large numbers. These seven entities, then, constitute the major sources of Southeast Asian students seeking international education--preferably in an English-speaking environment and show a growing preference, at the moment for the United States as the most suitable environment.

IV

A Comparative Approach to the Evaluation of Southeast Asian Applicants

A recent sociological study of the needs of foreign students in the United States, sponsored by the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), has dealt exhaustively with the subject by means of questionnaires distributed to international students on the campuses of 30 major U.S. universities.* Without necessarily seeking to invalidate the results of that study, it should be noted that in distinguishing among the reactions of foreign students, the report makes generalizations at the level of "regions" only--i.e., Africa, South and East Asia, Latin America, Southwest Asia. The report implies that these regional assignments do have some value in anticipating student "needs," or at least identifying them (although from an anthropological point of view the assumptions involved seem almost mystical). Such groupings; however, are not very meaningful in an area like Southeast Asia. The following comparison of candidate qualifications is calculated to illustrate this important point. Each nation, in a sense, is a law unto itself. Indeed, in those nations with diverse ethnic communities one may be forced to take into consideration ethnicity as well as nationality in assessing the claim of a particular applicant.

Language

An inescapable element in evaluating any application for admission from abroad is English language proficiency. Applicants for admission into a U.S. college or university are aware that the medium of instruction will be English and that they must prepare themselves to study through that medium. As far as Southeast Asia is concerned, learning English is a desideratum in itself among the elite or those who aspire to that status. This does not mean that we can anticipate comparable levels of English proficiency from all aspiring Southeast Asian applicants. What factors should we be taking into consideration in comparing a Singapore applicant with a 600 TOEFL score against a Thai applicant with a score 100 points lower? To answer this, let us look at the differing national circumstances.

a) Singapore: At the present time, all instruction in secondary and post-secondary institutions in Singapore is in English, except in language subjects themselves. English has always been the principal language of instruction at the University of Singapore, but there was also some instruction in Chinese, leading to enrollment in bilingual institutions like the now defunct Nanyang University. While the other three "official" languages of Singapore--Chinese, Malay and Tamil--provide social acceptability for their native speakers, it is clear that the government of Singapore, conscious of the fact that 77 percent of its population is Chinese and equally conscious that Chinese national identity is a liability to a people who live surrounded by the millions of Malays

*Motoko Y. Lee et al, Needs of Foreign Students from Developing Nations at U.S. Colleges and Universities, Washington: NAFSA, 1981. 180 pp. $5.

of Malaysia and Indonesia, has opted for English as one of the hallmarks of Singaporean identity. The need to establish such an identity has been acute ever since the ejection of Singapore from Malaysia in 1965. English, which is spoken as a native language by almost no Singaporeans, is obviously relatively neutral, and it enables the English-speaking Singaporean to communicate with his ASEAN neighbors and with the whole world of international commerce of which Singapore is very much a part. All the motivation for learning English is thus provided, and the infrastructure to provide first-class English instruction that has always been there is being vigorously reinforced through government importation of native English speakers as instructors and lecturers. Singapore TOEFL scores are high*, and should become higher still in the future.

b) Hong Kong: Even though it is a British colony, Hong Kong English proficiency tends to lag behind that achieved in Singapore, and the trend is downward. The government does not prescribe the language in which instruction shall take place, except that it shall be either Chinese or English if one wishes to prepare for entrance into either of the two local universities. In fact, most secondary education in Hong Kong (83 percent) is given through the medium of English, and it is from this 83 percent that the vast majority of the students of the Chinese University of Hong Kong as well as the University of Hong Kong are being drawn. English-medium institutions are clearly favored by Hong Kong parents for the education of their children for the sound practical reason that job prospects will be better if a good command of English is acquired--to say nothing of higher education either in Hong Kong or abroad. The system falters; however, because (1) the overwhelming majority of Hong Kong residents are native speakers of Cantonese, and that language is used outside of the classroom almost exclusively (whereas, by comparison, in Singapore 23 percent of the population is non-chinese and even among the Chinese majority there are clear linguistic divisions among the Hokkien-Teochiu, Cantonese, and Hailam language communities); (2) the teacher "models," especially in the less-prestigious secondary institutions, have an imperfect command of the language themselves; and, finally, (3) government sponsorship of secondary education is rapidly increasing and a larger segment of the post-primary age group is becoming involved in English-medium teaching for which they have a poor background, or perhaps none at all. The average TOEFL score for Hong Kong is probably about 502, and declining.

c) Philippines: As in Singapore, English is the medium of instruction in the Philippines for all secondary and postsecondary education. Unlike Singapore; however, the Philippines is a nation of nearly 50 million with a population that is two-thirds rural. (The Singaporean population is less than 2.5 million and 75 percent urban.) Consequently it is not to be anticipated that English proficiency will be comparably achieved by students living in all parts of the Philippine Islands. Moreover, the

*Mean score 562.

Philippine primary-secondary school sequence is for only ten years, after which university admission takes place. For the elite of Manila and Cebu, or those studying in Baguio, very high levels of English proficiency are certainly achievable, and the tradition is definitely there. Viewed as an entire nation, however, the possibilities for high English proficiency in the Philippines are uneven. There is a characteristic Filipino-English which is immediately recognizable in terms of diction and accent. The same cannot be said of Singapore.

d) Malaysia: Like Singapore, Malaysia is a former British colony which gained its independence as recently as 1957. The oldest English-medium institutions in this part of the world were established in Malaysia, Penang Free School being the first in 1816. Ying Wa College of Hong Kong was actually founded in Malacca in 1818 and did not move to Hong Kong until 1843. Thus there is a very long tradition of high-grade English instruction and instruction in English in the country. But this tradition is only tangentially relevant to the situation that exists in Malaysia today. Since 1970, the Malaysian government has been phasing out English as the medium of instruction so that by 1981 only Form Upper VI and some tertiary education continued to make use of that language for instructional purposes. Student applicants from other levels have by now had Malay as their only medium of regular instruction, although they have of course continued to study English as a subject.

This transformation derives from the very serious communal riots which took place in Kuala Lumpur in 1969. These riots, in which rural Malays were brought into Kuala Lumpur and engaged in a massacre of local Chinese, pointed up the disparities in the circumstances of the two major ethnic groups of Malaysia. The Chinese are primarily urban, hold a commanding position in the business, commercial, and financial interests of the country, and for these reasons they have had access to the finest educational institutions and the motivation to take advantage of them. The Malays, by contrast, dwell primarily in rural areas, have had little opportunity to develop major economic roles, have enjoyed only limited access to good educational opportunities--although the government did create special residential schools for rural Malays fairly early on, and in keeping with the traditions of most peasant-based societies, have had little motivation to strive for academic achievenemt. In a multi-pronged effort to restructure the relationships between the two groups, the government abandoned English as the instructional medium because it provided obvious advantages and incentives for the Chinese, and instead forced everyone, including the Chinese, to learn "the national language." This difficult situation is exacerbated by the fact that the Malays, while numerically the largest group, are actually not a majority in the country as a whole and have difficulty in providing rational justifications for the various means used to deny opportunities to Malaysian citizens of Chinese or Indian ethnic origin. The immediate outlook for English proficiency on a national basis is for a rapid drop-off in the forthcoming year or two.

e) Macau: In the context of this whole article, the most important thing to remember about Macau is that it is small--250,000 people crowded on six square miles of real estate. Education in Macau is overwhelmingly through the medium of Cantonese, but there are a few institutions which use English for secondary or postsecondary instruction, and at least three of them are of a stature comparable to the better secondary schools of Hong Kong. The new University of the East, which opened its doors in September, 1981, also gives instruction through the medium of English. It is the students of these very few institutions who will be seeking higher education abroad, but actually most of the enrollment at the university will be contributed by Hong Kong rather than Macau. English instruction at the secondary institutions mentioned above is quite good, and there are other facilities in the territory for private study of the language. Some high TOEFL scores are therefore posted.

f) Thailand: English is the official second language of Thailand and instruction in English, as a subject, is mandatory beginning in the fifth grade. For the affluent attending good private schools, English instruction may begin as early as the first grade, but in no regular school in Thailand is English ever the medium of instruction. This does much to explain why the national average for TOEFL in Thailand is only 470 and why good Thai students who wish to achieve higher English proficiency must find extra-curricular programs in special centers or with private tutors in order to do so. Fortunately, these are numerous and well qualified.

There are other factors of major importance. One is the great disparity between the Thai and English languages, phonetically and syntactically, plus the use of scripts which, while both alphabetic in nature, have no transfer value between one another. Another is that, since Thailand was never colonized, few Thai have needed to learn English. Only in the rather limited international business community of Bangkok did a knowledge of some English have obvious value to local students. Throughout the Thai educational system, therefore, the number of good English teachers to serve as models has been few and "Thai English" is replete with strange misconceptions that are perpetuated by generations of underqualified instructors.

Under these circumstances it takes an unusually well-motivated student to acquire a really good command of English, and he must also be rather favorably situated socially and geographically in order to make effective use of that motivation. Like the Philippines, Thailand is a nation of 45-50 million predominantly rural people. Among Thai who have not yet studied abroad, therefore, good speakers and writers of English are extremely rare.

g) Indonesia: Although English is regarded as the first international language in Indonesia, instruction in English as a subject does not usually begin before the seventh grade and is not very intensively pursued in the secondary school curriculum. English instruction in the postsecondary institutions is frequently for only one year, unless the student is a language or other humanities major. As in Thailand, therefore, and perhaps to an even greater degree, acquisition of real English proficiency requires strong motivation carried over into extracurriculuar situations.

Another factor to be considered is that Indonesia is a vast nation that is culturally and racially very diverse. A very considerable investment in the "national language"--i.e., Malay--must be made among the many minority speech communities as a means of inculcating national consciousness among them. Those students who must grapple with the demands of learning a non-native national language at the same time that they are introduced to an international language are obviously disadvantaged. (Similar situations arise in the Philippines, but there it is the international language--i.e., English-- which becomes the medium of instruction while this is not true in Indonesia.)

In contrast to Thailand, where there has been a long and steady accommodation to the idea of using English as the official second language, Indonesians abandoned Dutch, their colonial language, under conditions of national trauma and opted for English with virtually no existing infrastructure for education in that language. All of these factors weigh against the likelihood of producing completely proficient speakers of English among Indonesians who have not previously studied abroad. TOEFL scores are absolutely vital pieces of information for the evaluation of Indonesian applicants.

Financial Capability

Any U.S. visa officer must be convinced that an applicant for a student visa will have the financial means to complete his proposed educational program before a visa is issued. Lack of convincing evidence of these means is one of the principal causes for rejection of student visa applications.

The sources of student sponsorship will naturally vary, as will his opportunities to find that sponsorship, and once again specific national factors enter into this situation to enhance the financial capabilities of an applicant from one country as opposed to his counterpart elsewhere. Does the home government, for example, have a policy of providing financial assistance for overseas study? What is the condition of the national economy with respect to this possibility? Is the local currency in a stable enough condition to allow unrestricted transfers of funds? Has private capital accumulation reached a stage where family or other private sponsorship is likely among significant numbers of the local population? Questions such as these underlie the evaluations given below and allow us to make some estimates of each national situation.

a) Singapore: We place Singapore first for consideration again in spite of the fact that its relatively small size (616 square kilometers) and small population (about 2.5 million) provide a very limited pool of possible international students. But there is no doubt that Singaporeans enjoy the highest standard of living in Asia outside of Japan, that the currency is stable, the economy strong and the political consensus achieved under the able administration of Mr. Lee Kuan Yew so remarkable that unusual internal stability seems assured for some time to come.

The Singapore government, through the Public Services Department, has an active program of scholarship support for Singapore students abroad, but these scholarships are normally tenable at only the graduate level. The fact is that the official Singapore view of higher education is one where training is geared strictly to national manpower needs. Their one remaining university, the National University of Singapore, and the other nondegree-granting postsecondary institutions admit on a selective basis with quotas by department assigned through government. The answer to expanded needs in a particular area--as foreseen by government--therefore becomes an expansion of local institutional facilities rather than the exportation of undergraduates.

On the other hand, the very fact that local educational opportunities are determined in advance by government without regard for popular preferences does create a group of frustrated applicants who are likely to seek an outlet for their talents through study abroad. If they seek such outlets it is entirely possible that good family support can be obtained. Given the fact that 77 percent of the Singapore population is ethnically Chinese and that Chinese almost uniformly value academic achievement and most forms of advanced education, it is logical to anticipate proportionately high interest in overseas education. The motivation here is exceptionally high, and the previously mentioned expenses for British education are now turning Singaporean students toward the United States in significant numbers.

b) Hong Kong: Hong Kong and Singapore are frequently compared with one another because they are both small in area and overwhelmingly Chinese in ethnic composition. The similarities do not go much farther than that for the obvious reason that Hong Kong is a British Crown Colony and Singapore is an independent city-state. The generally robust state of the Hong Kong economy is well known and the laissez faire economic policies of the Hong Kong government are frequently singled out by some economists as a glorious example of capitalism in its finest flower. Private capital accumulation in Hong Kong is in fact legendary, but these achievements are necessarily made at the expense of services that might otherwise be shared by the public at large rather than by a small minority of the population. Among the neglected services is education--free primary school education, for example, did not become available until as late as 1971. The two small universities in Hong Kong, which in the Commonwealth tradition are organized and administered by government, have had minuscule rates of expansion in comparison with overall population growth and, more importantly, the growth of secondary school graduates wishing to go on to college.

For these reasons, many Hong Kong students have no alternative but to seek education abroad, and for some there are ample family funds available. For those less fortunate; however, there are no sources of support other than the prospective host institution since there are naturally no government monies available for these purposes.

Although the standard of living in Hong Kong lags considerably behind that of Singapore, since the disparities in wealth are greater and the population is double that of Singapore, Hong Kong ranks well against the smaller state as a source of prospective international students.

c) Malaysia: Funds available to Malaysian students for study abroad are of two kinds: government scholarships for ethnic Malays and family funds for ethnic Chinese and Indians. The division is very sharp and relates directly to the situation I have previously described in which English has been abandoned as a medium of instruction in favor of Malay. Proportionately, there seems little question that Malaysian government support for study abroad is the highest in Southeast Asia--and it is generous in each individual case. The critical question on which the whole process turns is whether the individual student can obtain placement first, which he must, in order to qualify for the award he seeks. It is a disorderly process which has led to various kinds of abuses, but it is clear that the government is more concerned with seeing that the absolute maximum number of ethnic Malays go abroad on the money available than that the process should be a more orderly one. The money available is considerable; however, because the Malaysian economy, currently buoyed by high-value petroleum exports, is bullish. Government contributes importantly to the huge number of Malaysian students abroad (upwards of 40,000), and it is redoubling its efforts to see that a much larger portion go to the United States--where the same money will now support a greater number of scholarships.

For these privately sponsored, predominantly ethnic Chinese, the United States has long been a popular place for study. But that tradition has been coupled with the fact that the United States is also perceived as a place where the poorly or partially financed student of superior academic achievement could expect to find scholarship support. That expectation has been justified. U.S. institutional support for Malaysian students, usually ethnic Chinese, has been flowing at a level of about $400,000 per year in new scholarship money. Whether this level will continue when no Malaysian applicant will have studied through the medium of English remains to be seen since unusual levels of English proficiency distinguished Malaysian scholarship applicants in the past and made them successful competitors against other international applicants.

d) Thailand: Like the Malaysian government, the Thai government also provides financial assistance for study abroad, and it has a long tradition of having done so. While there are some important exceptions to the rule as in the so-called King's Scholarships, most government financial assistance is given at the graduate level and primarily to government employees for staff development purposes. U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) participant assistance is similar in this respect, and is now operating at a very low level of support. Previously from 10-20 percent of the Thai students in the United States were sponsored by one government or the other, but the overwhelming majority of Thai students going to the United States today are self-sponsored and this means that relatively fewer placements are effected by the Royal Thai Embassy or USAID.

Since Thailand is devoted to the use of automobiles and simultaneously lacks any petroleum resources, its economy suffers very serious trade imbalances. In 1981 this has already led to two successive devaluations of the baht totalling about 10 percent. But the extreme centripetal tendencies which have caused the great urban metropolis of Bangkok to

dominate the country socially and politically have acted to create a large, monied elite in the capital, who tend to oversee the economic life of the country. They are in a strong position to maintain an elite tradition of seeking higher education abroad. Whether this occurs at the graduate or the undergraduate level, the effect that is frequently achieved is that of having attended finishing school in the case of young ladies, or having acquired a suit of "gold-plating" in the case of young men. This is not to say that the students do not also take their studies seriously, as indeed they may in many cases, but the social effect achieved--and anticipated--does not relate directly to academic prowess.

e) Indonesia: Blessed with a wealth of natural resources, including substantial amounts of oil--which in the past year has provided 70 percent of all government income--Indonesia is handicapped by a very large population that is growing rapidly and is projected to reach 221 million by the year 2000. The relatively small Chinese community plays a disproportionate role in the business sector with well over half of the economic activity in the country being controlled by two percent of the population. The vast amounts of petrodollars now funneling into government hands are largely used for capital-intensive development projects with relatively little trickling down into the hands of the people. It would seem that the government is haunted by the wild inflation of the Sukarno era and the consequent popular lack of confidence in the rupiah. Thus this rich and populous country actually produces a relatively limited crop of self-financed applicants for international study, and these will be disproportionately Indonesian-Chinese. On the other hand, there are many sources of financial support for well-qualified candidates from many different agencies--government, private, corporate, foundation, international--reputedly more in fact than there are good candidates to absorb them. This is because of the state of the educational system, about which more will be noted below.

f) Macau: Like Hong Kong, Macau is essentially a haven for refugees and the children of refugees. But in Hong Kong even refugees can become rich, while in Macau the obstacles to financial success are considerably more daunting. Most Macau applicants are therefore likely to be under-financed or modestly financed unless they have found some outside sponsorship. However, religious organizations play a major role in education in Macau and can sometimes find ways to help the able and deserving student. This also tends to channel the applications of such students to institutions with which linkages are already developed.

g) Philippines: The Philippine community in the United States is reputedly the largest from any Asian country and is said to number over 700,000. This is the outcome of the colonial period in which the United States occupied the country for nearly 50 years; today the United States still plays a disproportionate role in the economy. Filipinos in the United States thus constitute a source of funding for relatives, business colleagues, family friends or whomever.

for Filipino applicants who lack direct U.S. connections; however, movement abroad for educational purposes is restricted by some regulations. These involve currency exchange, permission for which must be obtained from the government, and the procedure is said to be tortuous and uncertain. Whether or not existing funds can be conveniently transferred abroad, the segment of the population which can command such funds is probably proportionately smaller than in either Malaysia or Thailand, but proportionately larger than Indonesia. Other factors are of even greater significance; however, so far as motivation to study abroad is concerned.

Local Facilities for Higher Education

Student movement abroad for higher education is inevitably affected by the degree to which adequate facilities exist for the same education at home. It is not a simple matter; however, of anticipating that no interest in education abroad will exist if access to local facilities is unlimited. At least two other factors enter into the picture--quality and tradition.

It would not be logical to anticipate that higher educational facilities in less-developed countries would, institution for institution, match those in developed countries like the United States--particularly when most of those countries have only achieved independence within the past three or four decades. But it is not simply a matter of pouring funds into new institutions or higher educational systems. It is also a matter of local concepts of the proper role and function which such institutions must play within the overall social system. So far as the United States is concerned, the existence of great numbers of highly autonomous institutions of quality, all competing against one another to attract the best possible student body, is a phenomenon that is almost certainly unique in the world. Those Southeast Asians who can afford to think of competing for admission to U.S. institutions are at least to some degree aware of this disparity in facilities and are seeking to buy abroad what no amount of investment at home will bring them.

In these respects, modern Southeast Asians are no different from the early Americans who sent their children to England for a superior education. Among the elite of Southeast Asia there is already a long-established tradition for higher education abroad, and the experience is therefore valued for its own sake, whether or not it is really necessary for educational purposes.

With respect to this subject area, I will present the seven countries--or at least political entities--of our concern in order of the degree to which access to appropriate higher education is available to their nationals locally, although this need not imply that there is a comparable intention or desire to take advantage of these facilities.

a) Thailand: Unable to match rapid population increase with educational institutions of uniform quality, the Thai government has opted for the development of auxiliary forms of higher education while retaining a basic core of selective universities that derive the major portion of their enrollments from the Bangkok-based commercial, bureaucratic, and military elites. These auxiliary institutions include private colleges, in which business administration is the predominant subject of study and

which operate without government subvention or direct supervision, but which are nonetheless carefully regulated by a special department of the Office of University Affairs; between 30 and 40 government teachers' colleges located throughout the provinces, most of which have now achieved the status of degree-granting institutions; an open-admission university (Ramkhamhaeng University) where class attendance is not mandatory; and finally, a new university without a campus, Sukhothaithammatirat, where all teaching is conducted by correspondence.

With all of these alternatives, it is fair to say that no Thai secondary school graduate need feel that he has no avenue of higher education open to him locally. The question is whether any of the alternatives available to him meet his own personal needs. Those who complete their undergraduate programs locally may still find that a quest for more professional status will require continuing their education abroad. Members of the Thai elite are just as likely to become applicants for admission abroad at the graduate level as they are at the undergraduate level, and among sponsored applicants they will form the great majority.

b) Philippines: Proportionately, the Philippine postsecondary educational establishment is the most elaborate in Southeast Asia. Indeed, in proportion to population there are more colleges and universities in the Philippines than in any country in the world, save the United States. While the system has its failings as well as its virtues, it is true that relatively few Filipino secondary school graduates are denied access to local higher education, and among them financial need might be the major inhibiting factor. A nationally administered university entrance examination does disqualify some students from further academic pursuits and channels them into vocational types of education if they wish to pursue them. But the actual proportion so disqualified is relatively small.

Among the facilities of higher education available in the Philippines, most are private and they vary widely in quality. Beyond the baccalaureate, standards drop off sharply except in a small handful of institutions. International education becomes more appropriate at this level in many cases, but the large Filipino community in the United States undoubtedly acts as a magnet at all levels.

c) Indonesia: As noted earlier, Indonesian higher education was almost nonexistent at the conclusion of the colonial period. Today there are literally hundreds of postsecondary institutions of all kinds. Of course, in a country the size of Indonesia it would take hundreds of institutions to satisfy popular demand for higher education, but one cannot create institutions of quality in great numbers overnight--especially when the number of existing professionals in the national "pool" of potential faculty talent is so low to begin with. As in the Philippines, therefore, the quality of existing institutions is very uneven with only a handful of government-sponsored universities at a level of international recognition.

f) Singapore: Because of its highly successful family planning program and a Draconian attitude toward immigration, the Singapore government has prevented overpopulation, of the kind that plagues most LDCs and is present in Hong Kong, from developing. By comparison, pressure for higher education in Singapore is moderate, and may wane somewhat in the 1980s, but the fact remains that there is actually only one university available, and it certainly does not meet the needs of the local populace. Since state manpower planning governs the intake into the various university departments, curricula of lesser interest to the government--usually the humanities and social sciences--receive less support, and students with interest in these areas may have to go abroad to satisfy those interests. It is unlikely that this situation will change under the present government, and that government is probably the stablest in Southeast Asia.

g) Macau: Before September, 1981, Macau completely lacked any institution that could qualify as genuinely within the realm of higher education. The new institution which will presumably change that situation to some degree is the University of East Asia, which received its first 200 students in that month. As its name suggests, however, the university is not exclusively, nor even primarily, for students from Macau. The bulk of its enrollment is expected to consist of Hong Kong students and other "overseas" Chinese. As English is the medium of instruction in the University of East Asia, this is simply a further reflection of the fact that the number of Macau students who are prepared to study through the medium of English is not large.

Comparability of Local Education with U.S. Education

The success enjoyed by foreign students in U.S. colleges and universities is to a considerable extent linked to the kind of educational preparation they have already had. Of course, the best preparation for advanced education through the medium of English is education through the same medium at a lower level. What can be said for the medium of instruction; however, can also be said for the content of the curriculum, the manner in which it is presented, the length of time devoted to the process, and a host of other factors, most of them relating to the cultural environment in which formal instruction is taking place. The closer the compatability of the local educational situation to that experienced by most Americans, the greater the likelihood of a successful adaptation to the demands of U.S. higher education.

Obviously no situation abroad will completely duplicate that which is obtained in the United States, and just as obviously nothing can be done to bring different systems into line with one another. The important question for the admissions officer is at what stage in the educational career of the foreign student it is most appropriate to consider him for freshman admission or for graduate admission. To find answers, we should consider not only the foreign students' abilities to adapt, but also how their accomplishments in the United States will be regarded when they return home, and how the U.S. system of host institution will be regarded in the local community.

Under these circumstances, and particularly in the case of affluent families of ethnic Chinese derivation, there is a very considerable interest in overseas higher education. Similarly, the many sponsoring organizations, that offer scholarships to those promising candidates that can be found, place many of their awardees in U.S. institutions. Their established loyalties; however, do not leave many opportunities for competitive recruitment by colleges without existing connections.

d) Malaysia: Like Indonesia, Malaysia entered the postcolonial era with very little in the way of a postsecondary academic establishment. Unlike Indonesia; however, the Malaysian government has very strictly controlled the growth of that establishment in the elitist tradition of the former colonial power. Thus the Malaysian government has found itself in the anomalous position of providing insufficient facilities to the very people whom it wishes to see educated in order to bring about a greater degree of socioeconomic parity between ethnic Malays and Malaysian-born Chinese. Of course various measures have been taken to see that such existing local facilities--five universities and several postsecondary institutes and teachers colleges--skew their admissions policies to favor ethnic Malays and discriminate against Chinese and Indians. But even so the number of fully sponsored ethnic Malays who must go abroad for both undergraduate and graduate studies is large.

For those who are suffering under this quite blatant discrimination, there is no choice but to go abroad. Thus within all elements in society there is interest in international education, and increasingly in U.S. education because it is more easily afforded.

e) Hong Kong: As a British Crown Colony, it seems unlikely that Hong Kong will endure beyond 1997, the year when the lease on the New Territories is due to expire. (The New Territories include 90 percent of the total land area of Hong Kong.) If one accepts this, it is perhaps easier to understand the relatively slow development of higher educational facilities in spite of a burgeoning demand. If Hong Kong is to revert to Chinese control in just another 16 years, then it is understandable if budget surpluses are "invested" rather than used for any social services. (The 1980/81 surplus was HK$6.6 billion.)

Whatever the cause, it is true that university enrollment in Hong Kong is expanding at the rate of only three-four percent per year, at most, while the secondary school graduations have doubled within the past five years. The new Hong Kong Polytechnic (HKP) does help to absorb some of this outflow, but HKP is still a nondegree-granting institution that provides mostly vocational training rather than academic preparation.

The pressure for admission into the two small universities of Hong Kong is understandably intense. Fewer than five percent of those students sitting for the Higher Level Examination, for example, are admitted into the Chinese University of Hong Kong, and admission is largely based on performance on that examination. Large numbers of Hong Kong students must therefore go abroad for higher education, if they are to have any, and U.S. higher education has been popular among them for many years. One can only predict an intensification of this interest.

U.S. educators, and the academic service community that facilitates the admissions process, carry with them a certain amount of ethnocentrism based upon their own satisfying experiences in the U.S. educational system. Erroneously, they frequently assume that representatives of other educational systems share their enthusiasm for U.S. educational accomplishments and that they are anxious to emulate the example that Americans may feel they have set for others.

These assumptions are not always based on fact. Just as U.S. academic officials puzzle over how or if they can grant "equivalent" status to achievements gained in other educational systems, so, too, academic administrators look with suspicion, and sometimes with distaste, on the "disorderly" U.S. educational scene, the relative lack of discipline to be found throughout the establishment, the lack of federal government supervision of the system, the vacillating policies of individually autonomous institutions with respect to grading of student performance, the awarding of academic credit for undertakings that are basically social or even recreational in nature, the generally poor motivation in student bodies, and so on. Reflecting these attitudes, we can note, is the fact that until 1971 the Hong Kong government equated the U.S. master's degree with the locally awarded bachelor's degree, while the U.S. baccalaureate was equated with matriculation status in the local system. In neither Malaysia nor Singapore was the U.S. degree recognized at all at that time.

Of course, U.S. business concerns operating abroad may find that local employees who have studied in the United States are able to give employment performances that are "superior"--i.e., more satisfying to the employer--to those of employees who are locally educated. It is easy to see that differing sets of cultural expectations are involved in these judgments. The point to remember; however, is that U.S. higher education is of only limited value to students from abroad if they cannot translate that investment into satisfactory employment and social status when they return to their home country. Thus it is important to do the best that one can for them by protecting the image of U.S. higher education in their home country. The best that one can do in this respect is to avoid violations--or seeming violations--of the educational progression that obtains in the home country. Some countries present no particular problem in this respect; others do.

a) Thailand: Like the United States, Thailand has a 12-year primary/secondary school sequence of studies followed by university degree programs that are generally four years long, although there are a few exceptions. Moreover, under the system now taking shape the superficial resemblances to U.S. concepts of primary/secondary education are even more familiar and congruent. It is thus a simple matter to equate the completion of the new Matayom VI grade with completion of U.S. grade 12 and admit students into college freshman status on this basis, presuming other qualifications are in order. Similarly, the holder of a Thai bachelor's degree can be considered to have had the same length of preparation as the holder of an American bachelor's degree and thus be eligible for graduate admission if other qualifications are acceptable.

Of course, this is not to say that Thai education and U.S. education are similar in any significant way. They are the products of two very different social systems and the bearers of two extremely dissimilar cultural traditions. One loses patience with literal-minded administrators who peer intently at translated transcripts in the hope of

being able to identify similarities on a "course-by-course basis." Such approaches simply reveal that the analyst concerned has absolutely no appreciation of the distinctions that can make comparative education a quagmire. No product of the Thai educational system is really well prepared for studies in a U.S. educational environment--and vice versa, although the Thai is better prepared for studies in the United States than his counterpart is for study in Thailand. But this does not mean that successful educational exchanges cannot take place. One simply accepts the students with a certain amount of faith in their ability to adjust and that of the institution to absorb, provided they have fulfilled requirements in their own country which place them on a par with their U.S. peers.

b) Indonesia: Like Thailand and the United States, Indonesia also has a 12-year primary/secondary school sequence with secondary school being divided into three-year "junior" and "senior" segments. At the post-secondary level; however, the similarities disappear and Dutch influence still predominates. The basic "degree," sarjana muda, is awarded after a minimum of three years study, the ensuing sarjana after a minimum additional two years of study. Frequently the periods of study are longer. The "wastage" in Indonesia at these levels is enormous. The consensus among U.S. admissions officers appears to be that completion of the sarjana muda qualifies the applicant for undergraduate admission with advanced standing only, while the sarjana graduate can be admitted to graduate studies at the beginning level. In view of the uneven state of Indonesian higher education, this is probably a wise position to take.

c) Singapore: In Singaporean terminology, primary/secondary school is normally concluded at the end of ten years, at which time Singaporean students sit for their "O" level examinations. If they are successful on these public examinations, they enroll for another two years in a "junior college" in order to prepare for matriculation at the National University of Singapore--a total of 12 years of preparation. They then sit for those "A" level examinations which will determine whether they are actually admissible to the local institution.

In the United States, many institutions are prepared to admit to freshman status Commonwealth students who have "x" number of GCE or other "O" level passes. If approached on this basis, therefore, good Singaporean students might become admissible after they had completed only ten years of education--two years before they become admissible at their own university. Eager U.S. institutions argue that, with that level of accomplishment, the students can do the required work. But if U.S. students took the same examinations at the end of tenth grade and also passed the same tests, would they be admitted?

The educated community in Singapore is not really very large. They have an elitist's regard for education, and they take extreme pride in the academic achievements of their young students. U.S. institutions will not maintain their reputation long among Singaporeans if they learn that freshman admission will take place at the conclusion of secondary schooling without any junior college preparation.

d) Hong Kong: In Hong Kong the situation is considerably more complex. Here locally devised public examinations are administered at the end of Form 5 (Certificate of Education), Form Lower 6 (Higher Level Examination) and Form Upper 6 (Advanced Level Examination). These represent the conclusion of 11, 12 and 13 years of education respectively. These examinations, all of which are developed and administered by the Hong Kong Examinations Authority, are intended to have a broader applicability in the future than they presently have, but for the moment they are tied very directly to academic progression in the colony.

The Certificate of Education, which is also given to graduates of Middle 5 in the Chinese stream of education, is viewed as a school-leaving examination and indeed is the lineal descendant of the old Hong Kong School Certificate. Distinction and Credit level passes in subjects on this examination ("A", "B", "C") are regarded as the equivalent of GCE "O" level passes. It is important to note; however, that possession of this certificate, regardless of the character of the performance, does not qualify the Hong Kong student for admission into either of the two local degree-granting institutions, the University of Hong Kong and the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Admission into the latter institution, which offers four-year degree programs, is based upon performance on the Higher Level Examination, which is administered one year later after completion of Middle 6 or Form Lower 6. Although the Chinese University of Hong Kong was originally formed to accommodate the graduates of the Chinese-medium middle schools of Hong Kong, the great majority of the present-day enrollment of the university have come through the Anglo-Chinese secondary schools where they have completed Form Lower 6 before being considered for admission. In other words, these are the same types of students who might be applying for admission into U.S. institutions. Some U.S. institutions, unfortunately, are so eager to admit these students that they ignore the local situation and admit on the basis of Form 5 performance, thus throwing into question the comparability of their degrees with those of the local institutions.

The Advanced Level examinations given in Hong Kong at the conclusion of Form Upper 6 serve as matriculation qualifiers for the University of Hong Kong, an institution with a three-year degree program. The Hong Kong "A" levels are comparable to the GCE "A" levels except in science/math subjects, where the Hong Kong examinations are considerably more difficult. Applicants who have taken the Hong Kong Advanced Levels are entitled to advanced standing in those subjects in which they have been successful.

e) Malaysia: Malaysia naturally shares the British Commonwealth educational orientation of Hong Kong but lacks the Chinese middle school element in its modern education system. At completion of Form 5 (Grade 11) the students sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Education (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia) as a form of school-leaving examination. Performance on this will determine whether they are admissible into a two-year matriculation class to prepare for "A" Level examinations (Higher School Certificate) and possible admission into one of the five local universities. Those who are less successful on the SPM (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia)--and they form the majority--can seek admission into nondegree-granting institutions such as the Institut Teknoloji Mara.

Here again the situation is one that is open to interpretation by prospective admitting institutions in the United States. There are those who would argue that U.S. institutions should admit Malaysians with good passes on the SPM, even though admission into a three- or four-year Malaysian degree program (and there are both) could not take place without an additional two years of pre-university level studies. Moreover, as the Malaysian government is extremely anxious to sponsor ethnic Malay students who cannot be accommodated in local institutions, there is an obvious financial incentive for the government to avoid additional pre-university studies. One can only note; however, that the U.S. institution that admits students with this level of preparation is simultaneously identifying itself with the Malaysian nondegree-granting technical institutes, not with the more demanding universities of Malaysia. The value of the U.S. degree awarded is thus thrown further into question at a time when Malaysian recognition of U.S. degrees is rather tentative and incomplete.

f) Macau: Secondary institutions in Macau provide 12 years of preparation but with only a single year of Form 6. There are no public examinations offered by the Macau government, and thus only internal records from the schools or such things as GCE or CEEB performances help to identify the student's abilities. Not all students will continue into Form 6, particularly if there is a possibility of being admitted by an institution that is satisfied with completion of Form 5, or if it becomes necessary to seek employment. But there is no good reason why prospetive applicants should not be required to complete the full 12-year curriculum.

No "degree" awarded by any Macau institution before 1984 should be considered to have any academic value. That will be the first year to produce graduates of the new University of East Asia. It will then become appropriate to decide whether or not those degrees--which will be based on a three-year curriculum--are equivalent to, say, University of Hong Kong degrees and whether the degree-holders can therefore be considered for regular graduate admission. It is too early to predict how the new university will develop in its earliest years, and one must bear in mind that the entering first-year class will have only 200 students.

g) Philippines: Since 1973 the National College Entrance Examination (NCEE) has governed admission into the numerous postsecondary colleges and universities in the Philippines. The major question in the Philippines is whether a typical student from any country who presents school records for only ten years should be eligible for U.S. college freshman admission. Most U.S. admissions officials take the view that such a preparation is inadequate, although many reverse this viewpoint with respect to Singapore once they are assured that students have passed their "O" Level examinations.

The fact that the Philippine primary/secondary school sequence is only ten years in length; however, is inescapable, and unlike Singapore there is no "junior college" to provide further preparation for university study. If U.S. admissions officers prefer not to admit freshmen at this level, they can argue that the very large secondary school

system in the Philippines includes institutions of such variance as to make evaluations of individual applicants difficult. A year or two of additional studies in a local postsecondary institution, the quality of which may be better known, makes for a more reasonable form of admission and advanced standing can be awarded for some of the coursework completed.

Understandably, Filipino educators take a mixed view of these evaluations. While it is obvious to one and all that ten years of education in one country cannot be directly equated to 12 years in another country, least of all when the former is an LDC and the latter an industrialized nation, Filipinos are extremely sensitive to their former colonial relations with the United States and quite likely to perceive as acts of discrimination any evaluations which fail to give sufficient recognition to achievements within their own system. It is a difficult and challenging admissions problem.

Motivation

One of the most difficult features to assess in foreign applicants, particularly if the assessment must be made while they are still in their home country, is the nature of their motivation. Yet it is an extremely important element in accessing applicants, particularly if financial assistance is contemplated.

Motivation is just as important to the visa officer as it is to the admissions official, and while the former at least has the advantage of a personal interview with the visa applicant, the duration of that interview is frequently too short to permit much in the way of an evaluation. Most often the officer must try to deduce whether the applicant is an intending immigrant rather than a bona fide international student from only fragmentary documentary evidence and doubtful or speculative observations during a brief interview.

Of course, motivation is necessarily a personal matter, and it might do a great injustice to any individual to attempt to place a "national" characterization on his motivation if large numbers of applicants from any one community or nationality are made subject to generalization. Nevertheless, rejection rates for student visa applicants vary widely from one consular post to another. Moreover, those who have direct contact with the applicants for advisory or interviewing purposes can discern patterns in the application process.

The following remarks on motivation among Southeast Asian students are not made with any suggestion that they are comprehensive but simply to alert the responsible admissions official to prevailing situations that may influence the motivation of any prospective applicant from that area. Some communities, for reasons of size and special elements in their histories, present a relatively simple and clearcut picture, while others are really too large to make possible any very significant generalizations. It might be best, therefore, to proceed from the simple to the complex in these remarks.

a) Macau: Throughout most of its 425-year history as a Portuguese enclave on the south coast of China, Macau has functioned as a haven for refugees and migrants of various kinds, not all of them Asian by any means. At the present time, for example, it is one of the innumerable landfalls in Southeastern Asia sought out as a place of first asylum by Vietnamese "boat people." A modest community of Sino-Burmese have also gathered there in recent times who, while perhaps not refugees in a political sense, have decided to leave their adopted Burmese homeland in the hope of eventually finding greater economic opportunities elsewhere.

There are native-born Macaenese, and there must be a number of individuals who spend all or almost all of their natural lives within that community, but Macau is only six square miles in area and relatively few people settle there with the long-range intention of making it their final resting place. It would be unrealistic not to recognize this element in the situation, just as it would be uncharitable not to recognize the rights of all human beings to better their lives when conditions in their native place become intolerable.

b) Hong Kong: Since Macau and Hong Kong are separated by only 30 miles of the Pearl River estuary, and since both entities are the residue of a bygone colonial era, it might be tempting to draw similar conclusions about their resident populations. This would; however, be only partly justifiable. While Hong Kong, like Macau, has since its inception as a British colony in 1841 functioned as a refugee station at various times, it is so much larger and more diverse geographically (400+ square miles, 235 islands), so heavily populated (5.5 million), and so prosperous that it has afforded the resident population a very much greater sense of identity and varieties of opportunity lacking in the smaller enclave. Monied property owners among the elite of Hong Kong have a personal stake in the success of the colony, as have the industrialists who have transformed its economy in the era after World War II. The character of this stake will be brought increasingly into question as the expiration date of the New Territories lease (1997) approaches--except in the unlikely possibility that the People's Republic of China should decide to extend or renew it. But for the time being it is still possible to treat the colony almost as though it did offer a future home for students who go abroad to acquire an advanced education.

At the same time, it will be easy for all to understand that Hong Kong students seek out professional careers for themselves as the outgrowth of their studies abroad--in business and engineering particularly, because their basic search is for a kind of personal autonomy that will enable them to survive in a variety of environments should their native place prove to be untenable in the long run. It is a situation that contrasts with those in genuine national homelands where individuals may well be opting for professional status of a kind that will enable them to make a contribution to the "development" of their own country. Very, very few Hong Kong students, whether refugee or Hong Kong-born, would consider contributions to the further development of a British colony a worthwhile life's endeavor. Most of those who "serve" Hong Kong do so for what they can exact from the experience in the way of personal gain.

c) Philippines: Nearly 50 years of colonial occupation of the Philippines by the United States have left certain orientations which, while they may not be shared by the whole population of this vast archipelago, are certainly reflected in the educational establishment. They inevitably affect those who absorb enough of that education to advance into elite status, and these are the same individuals most likely to seek further education abroad.

A very considerable Filipino minority still favors the idea of having their country become a U.S. state, and the relatively large Filipino immigrant community in the United States helps to maintain a communications bridge that links the two countries together. Thus prospective immigration could certainly become a feature of many applications from the Philippines, but the nation is by no means a refugee haven. Many patriotic young Filipinos hope to contribute to the development of their nation. But since the government does not give any very significant support to international education, and since the local educational establishment is so well developed, almost all applicants will be privately sponsored and either supported by relatives already living in the United States or by very affluent families in the Philippines. Their potential for international mobility after completing education is therefore prospectively high.

d) Malaysia: The important ethnic distinctions within the Malaysian population have already been noted. Inevitably, they color the thinking of those Malaysians seeking education abroad and must be taken into consideration in evaluating motivation. The ethnic Malays who enroll in U.S. institutions, more often than not under sponsorship from one government agency or another, gain the opportunity for elevation in their own society. Unable to gain admission into local degree-granting institutions in many cases, perhaps most, they find redemption abroad from where they can return to Malaysia to join fellow Malays in an economic situation strongly biased in their favor and where professional employment is guaranteed for all members of the ethnic group who can qualify. All the aspiring students need do is keep their noses pointed in the right direction to insure success in employment.

Malaysians who are ethnic Chinese or Indians, on the other hand, and especially the former, cannot be expected to show anything more than ambivalence about a social situation actively skewed to discriminate against them. Forced to seek education abroad, perhaps, in spite of having superior academic qualifications for admission to local institutions, they or their families must pay for that education while others are allowed to take up their places in Malaysian universities which their taxes are paying for. The only guarantees for suitable employment they can expect upon return to Malaysia are those offered by their own families or other members of the Chinese business community, although this is not to say that other forms of employment in the public sector might not be open to them. Thus the Malaysian Chinese may very much resemble the Hong Kong Chinese in their thinking and seek the personal autonomy and flexibility that a professional career can offer wherever it may be necessary for them to go.

e) Singapore: With the highest standard of living in Asia outside of Japan, the Singaporean seeking education abroad has much less anxiety about his future opportunities to advance in life. The current trend in the economy is toward capital-intensive undertakings because of the developing labor shortage, and the opportunities for employment among those returning with advanced technical training from abroad are very good. Those with the will, the opportunity, and the money to seek a liberal arts degree also tend to be candidates for foreign institutions. Unlike most other Southeast Asian countries, therefore, statements of purpose from Singaporean applicants may be believed more frequently. Most of them will genuinely feel that they have something attractive and promising to which to return.

f) Thailand: Most Thai students going abroad tend to return. Within the past 20 years; however, the character of the postsecondary student body within the country has changed to a significant degree as the large Chinese community has been assimilated into modern Thai society. This assimilation is far from complete, but it stands in considerable contrast to the assimilative process elsewhere in Southeast Asia and is a noteworthy special characteristic of the Thai nation. So far as higher education is concerned; however, the result has been to swell the enrollments of the national universities with assimilated Thai-Chinese, all of them bearing Thai names and thus not being readily distinguishable from ethnic Thai.

Thai-Chinese students are noticeably cosmopolitan. Economically adventurous, intimately aware of the massive U.S. military presence in Thailand during the Vietnam war (as were all other Thai as well), and stimulated by the opportunities for entrepreneurship in the United States, quite a number of them have migrated to some of the major U.S. cities, particularly Los Angeles. While the problem may not rank as a serious one,it contrasts with the traditional Thai situation and causes the U.S. Embassy in Bangkok to have one of the higher student visa rejection rates in that part of the world.

This is not to say, of course, that ethnic Thai do not themselves become immigrants, nor is it true that anything more than a minority of Thai-Chinese students in the United States seek change of status. Thailand is a major Southeast Asian nation, and the opportunities for the individual, as a person and as a contributor to the national society, are virtually unlimited. Thus there can be a wide diversity of motives in seeking education abroad, and what has been said above is offered only by way of explaining how traditional patterns have been slightly distorted by recent developments of an unusual nature. It also explains in part why the major interest in studying abroad has switched to business administration rather than engineering or other previously more popular subjects that have more directly to do with public undertakings.

g) Indonesia: It would be foolish in the extreme to attempt generalizations about a nation as large and diverse as Indonesia where applicants from many types of backgrounds, both sponsored and self-sponsored, will be found. Other factors in the application will take precedence over motivation in almost all cases and some of those we have already noted above.

The burden of the foregoing remarks would perhaps make it seem that the chief issue in assessing motivation is whether or not an applicant for advanced U.S. studies is likely to become an immigrant. The question of motivation is obviously a much broader one than that. In fact, it is possible that U.S. college officials have never stopped to consider the question of prospective immigration since it falls outside of their normal considerations. The officials may be concerned about such things as why students say they wish to attend one particular U.S. institution rather than any other, and whether the applicants' expectations appear to be realistic or even relevant to what is available. Are the applicants even serious about their studies in the first place or are they just looking for a four-year vacation abroad? Are they hoping to marry other students already on campus? Are they continuing their studies abroad simply to please their parents, or perhaps to escape from close parental supervision? But these more conventional considerations are particular to each applicant. Further insight into them can be gained chiefly, perhaps only, through personal interviews conducted either by alumni or by professional interviewers such as those in the IIE Applicant Information Service. One cannot generalize about them on a national basis.

On the other hand, admissions officials should be aware that, in the last analysis, their own decisions will become meaningless if the visa officer rejects the visa application, even though it is supported by a valid I-20 Form. Where rejection rates are as high as 50 percent--as they are in places like Hong Kong--most applicants are rejected because it is thought that the student seeks the visa as an eventual first step toward immigrant status.

V

Conclusion

While this survey of seven Southeast Asian sources of international students has tended to focus on disparities among them, the exercise should not distract us from the major point to be made for the area as a whole: in comparison with other large regions, Southeast Asia is a relatively good source for foreign applicants to U.S. institutions. Moreover, the economic indicators of the moment are such that it seems very likely that the United States will be enjoying expanded relations with all of these countries for some years to come. From a practical viewpoint, therefore, it is in the national interest to have students from this part of the world on U.S. campuses so that they can become familiar with the people, the form of government, the business practices, and indeed with all aspects of U.S. culture while improving their English proficiency and acquiring professional skills. Conversely, their presence will stimulate many U.S. students to learn more about Southeast Asia and perhaps eventually to participate directly in the intensifying relations among the nations of the developing Pacific basin community. To me the justifications seem very clear-cut, and the need for this type of student interchange, judiciously administered, should be of national priority.

NAME OF COUNTRY	ENGLISH PROFICIENCY RANK ORDER	FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES	ACCESSIBILITY OF LOCAL HIGHER EDUC. RANK ORDER	COMPARABILITY TO U.S. EDUCATIONAL SEQUENCE	MOTIVATION* RANK ORDER
HONG KONG	2	EXCELLENT	5	11, 12, 13	2
INDONESIA	7	GOOD	3	12	7
MACAO	5	FAIR/GOOD	7	11, 12	1
MALAYSIA	4	GOOD/EXCELLENT	4	11, 13	4
PHILIPPINES	3	FAIR	2	10	3
SINGAPORE	1	EXCELLENT	6	10, 12	5
THAILAND	6	GOOD/EXCELLENT	1	12	6

*Likelihood of disguised immigration

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROFILE

Name of Country - - Hong Kong

The IIE country profile series is intended as a basic summary of facts relevant to bi-lateral educational exchange.

General:

Compulsory education - ages 6-15; free at public schools and most aided schools

% of national budget devoted to education - over 20% (HK$1,658 million)

0-15 age group as a percent of the total population - 26.5% (1979)

Primary Education:

Ages 6-11 - 6 years, standard track for all students

Enrollment - 540,260 (public + private) - September 1980
11,831 (night schools) - September 1980

Certificate or diploma - none

Language of instruction - Chinese in most schools and English is taught as a second language

Academic year - generally runs from September to June

Secondary Education:

Enrollment - 489,918 (total in September 1980)

5-7 years - 3 years (Forms 1 to 3) compulsory - only when students pass the Junior Secondary Education Assessment can they proceed to Form 4

- 2 years (Forms 4 to 5)

- 2 years matriculation (Forms 6 and 7)

Grading Practices - Internal -- grading scales and practices vary from school to school
-- generally, under "100%" marking system, 40% or 50% might be the passing mark
- External -- grading practices are as follows:-

Hong Kong Certificate of Education

Post-1966 grade	Pre-1966 grade	Description
A	1	Pass with distinction
B & C	2 & 3	Pass with credit
D & E	4, 5 & 6	Pass
F, G & H	7, 8 & 9	Fail

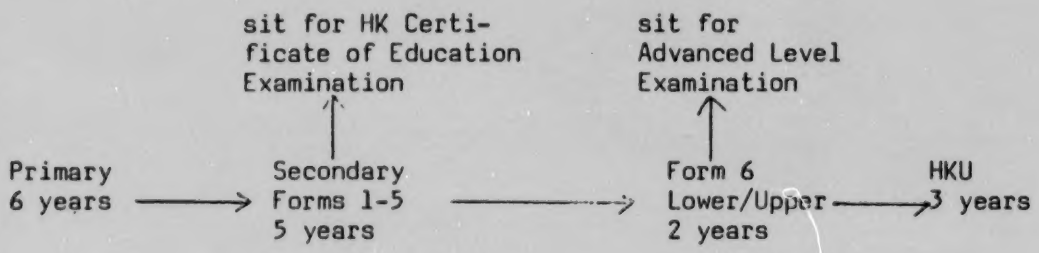
Academic year - generlly from September to June

Certificate or Diploma - (1) The Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (after Form 5)
(2) Hong Kong Higher Level Examination (after Form 6)
(3) Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination (after Form 7)

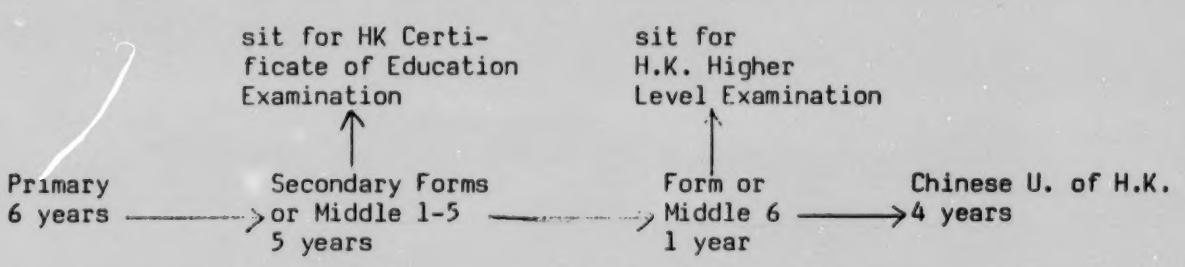
...2/

4 main types of schools leading to the H.K. Certificate of Education Exam -

(1) Anglo-Chinese Grammar Schools
- teach in English with Chinese as a second language
- successful candidates after the HKCEE may enter the sixth form for 2 years to prepare for the Advanced Level exam


sit for HK Certificate of Education Examination
sit for Advanced Level Examination
Primary 6 years
Secondary Forms 1-5 5 years
Form 6 Lower/Upper 2 years
HKU 3 years

(2) Chinese Middle Schools
- teach in Chinese with English as a second language
- a number of Chinese middle schools offer a one-year, F.6 preparation for the H.K. Higher Level Exam


sit for HK Certificate of Education Examination
sit for H.K. Higher Level Examination
Primary 6 years
Secondary Forms or Middle 1-5 5 years
Form or Middle 6 1 year
Chinese U. of H.K. 4 years

- Chinese middle school students wishing to attend HKU normally require 1 to 2 additional years of special preparation in English in order to pass the HKU Advanced Level exam. This study may be done in a special tutorial English class or in the Anglo-Chinese schools, Lower and Upper 6.

(3) Technical Schools
- teach in English with Chinese as the second language
- like the Anglo-Chinese grammar schools, prepare their students for the HK Certificate of Education exam
- it should be noted that the curriculum of a technical school in Hong Kong is basically the same as of the Anglo-Chinese grammar school, except that certain courses of a technical and commercial nature are added to the curriculum.

(4) Other Secondary Schools

English Schools
- King George V School - government school
  Island School - government-aided school operated by the English Schools Foundation
- prepare their students for the G.C.E. exam

American School
- The Hong Kong International School
  (a) offers a complete American-oriented elementary, and secondary educational program from kindergarten through Grade 12

...3/

(b) founded in 1966, is sponsored and operated under the auspices of the Lutheran Church - Missouri Synod
(c) it is accredited by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges and is registered with the Education Department of Hong Kong.

Tertiary Education:

Technical Institutes
- under the Technical Education Branch of the Education Department
- designed to provide courses at both craft and technician levels on a full-time, block-release, part-time day-release and evening basis
- minimum admission requirement - completion of Form 5
- 5 technical institutes; namely,
  (1) Morrison Hill Technical Institute
  (2) Kwun Tong " "
  (3) Kwai Chung " "
  (4) Haking Wong " "
  (5) Lee Wai Lee " "

Teacher Training
- 2 years, full-time diploma program
- provided at the Education Department's 3 Colleges of Education -
  (1) Grantham College of Education
  (2) Northcote College of Education
  (3) Sir Robert Black College of Education
- produce non-graduate teachers qualified to teach in primary schools and the lower forms of secondary school
- technical teacher training is provided at the Hong Kong Technical Teachers' College (1 and 2 year program available)
- U. of HK and Chinese U. of HK also offer diploma programs and degree programs in their School of Education

Higher Education:

Short (2-3 year) diploma programs and long (3-6 year) academic and professional programs

Universities are publicly supported; a college can be registered under the Post-Secondary Colleges Ordinance only when the Director of Education is satisfied with its academic standards, governing bodies, constitution, finance, educational facilities, the number of qualified staff and the conditions for admitting students.

Language of Instruction - English except in those areas in which the subject is another language; also bilingual - English and Chinese

Academic Calendar
- Varies according to individual universities and colleges
- Generally from September till June (3 terms of about 10 weeks each; 2 terms of 14 weeks; 2 16-week semesters)

Types of Higher Education Institutions - 3 types
(1) two publicly supported universities, the U. of H.K. and The Chinese U. of H.K.
(2) the Hong Kbng Polytechnic
(3) Postsecondary colleges; the Hong Kong Baptist College, Hong Kong Shue Yan College and Lingnan College - all are registered under the Post-secondary Colleges Ordinance

List of Higher Education Institutions -

The University of H.K.
- publicly supported
- offers undergraduate and graduate degrees
- enrollment - 6,339 (1980/81)

The Chinese U. of H.K.
- publicly supported
- offers undergraduate and graduate degrees
- enrollment - 5,180 (1980/81)

The Hong Kong Polytechnic
- government-sponsored, post-secondary educational institution
- offers 3 different levels of diploma programs
- enrollment - 7,200 full time (1980/81) - 3,400 part-time day-release
  - 14,700 part-time evening

The Hong Kong Baptist College
- government-supported
- offers 4-year and 5-year diploma programs
- enrollment - 3,379 (1980)

Shue Yan College
- private
- offers 4-year diploma programs
- enrollment - 3,159 (1980)

Lingnan College
- government aided
- offers 4-year & 5-year diploma programs
- enrollment - 911 (1980)

Degree System -

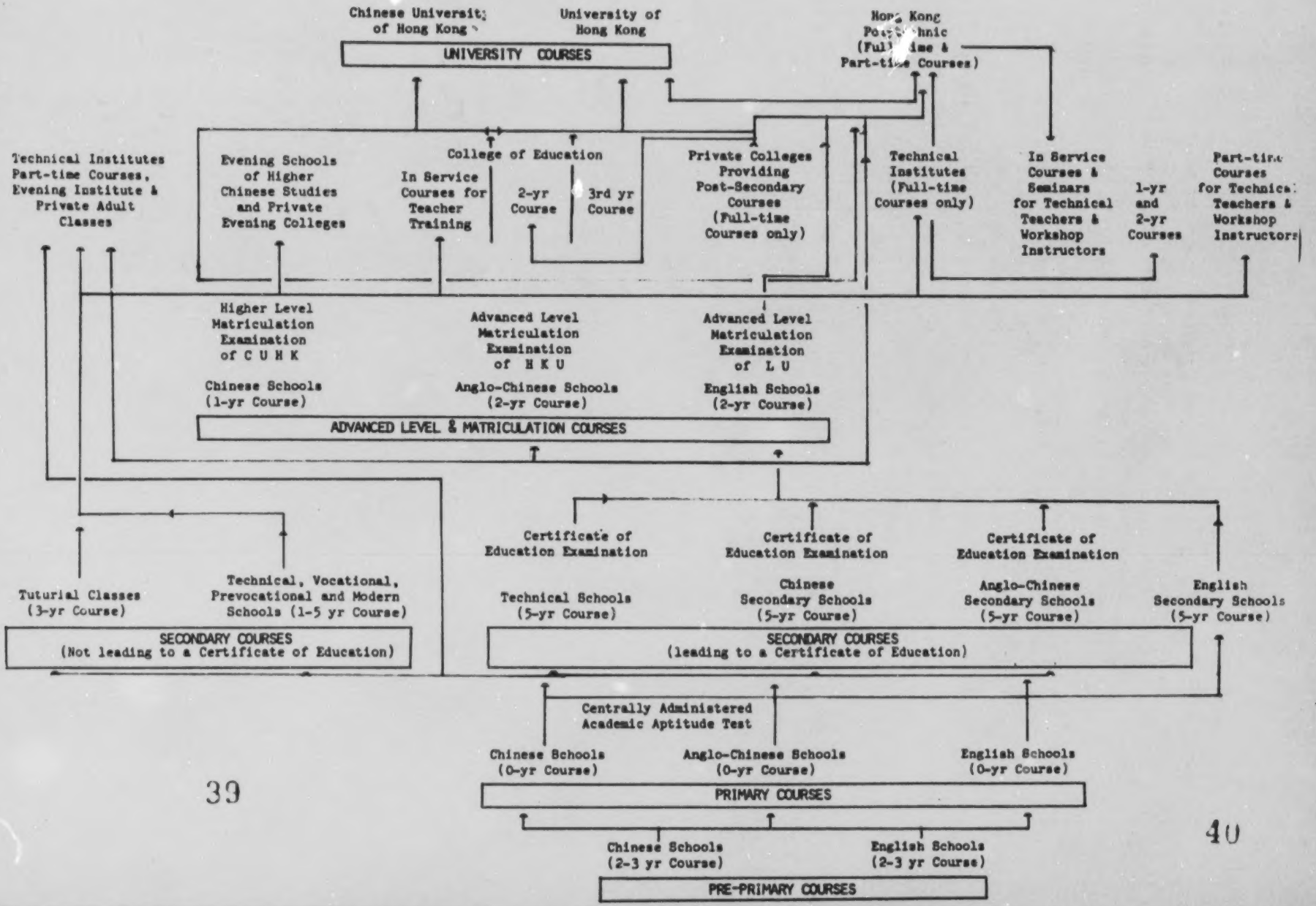
Undergraduate degrees (3-4 years) — Bachelor's Degree
- 1st Class Honour
- 2nd Class Honour Upper Division
- 2nd Class Honour Lower Division
- 3rd Class Honour
- Pass Degree

Graduate degrees (2 years)
- masters
- doctors

Postsecondary institutions (2-4 years)
- patterned close to the American system with British characteristics incorporated

General guidelines on admission of students from broad -
Transfers from other universities to the universities and post-secondary institutions in Hong Kong are dealt with on their individual merits, however, the following can serve as guidelines if applying to the universities in Hong Kong:-
(1) must have completed at least 1 year university course work

THE EDUCATION STRUCTURE - HONG KONG


Chinese University of Hong Kong
University of Hong Kong
UNIVERSITY COURSES
Hong Kong Polytechnic (Full-time & Part-time Courses)
Technical Institutes Part-time Courses, Evening Institute & Private Adult Classes
Evening Schools of Higher Chinese Studies and Private Evening Colleges
College of Education
In Service Courses for Teacher Training
2-yr Course
3rd yr Course
Private Colleges Providing Post-Secondary Courses (Full-time Courses only)
Technical Institutes (Full-time Courses only)
In Service Courses & Seminars for Technical Teachers & Workshop Instructors
1-yr and 2-yr Courses
Part-time Courses for Technical Teachers & Workshop Instructors
Higher Level Matriculation Examination of C U H K
Advanced Level Matriculation Examination of H K U
Advanced Level Matriculation Examination of L U
Chinese Schools (1-yr Course)
Anglo-Chinese Schools (2-yr Course)
English Schools (2-yr Course)
ADVANCED LEVEL & MATRICULATION COURSES
Certificate of Education Examination
Certificate of Education Examination
Certificate of Education Examination
Tuturial Classes (3-yr Course)
Technical, Vocational, Prevocational and Modern Schools (1-5 yr Course)
Technical Schools (5-yr Course)
Chinese Secondary Schools (5-yr Course)
Anglo-Chinese Secondary Schools (5-yr Course)
English Secondary Schools (5-yr Course)
SECONDARY COURSES (Not leading to a Certificate of Education)
SECONDARY COURSES (leading to a Certificate of Education)
Centrally Administered Academic Aptitude Test
Chinese Schools (0-yr Course)
Anglo-Chinese Schools (0-yr Course)
English Schools (0-yr Course)
PRIMARY COURSES
Chinese Schools (2-3 yr Course)
English Schools (2-3 yr Course)
PRE-PRIMARY COURSES

(2) for graduate student application - must have a Bachelor's degree from a recognized university
(3) reach the age of 30 years if without university course work before applying (HKU only)
(4) no transfer of credits (HKU only)

Policy and procedures for validation of degrees -
Foreign degrees are given official recognition through review and approval. The candidate must submit the original of the degree, and official transcripts.

Number of nationals presently studying in the U.S. - 10,520 (1978/79)

List of agencies awarding scholarships, fellowships or student loans -
Such information can be obtained from H.K. government Education Department or directly to the individual institutions.

Main in-country information sources in US education -
Institute of International Education
Educational Advisory Service, Hang Seng Bank

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INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROFILE

Name of Country - Malaysia

The IIE country profile series is intended as a basic summary of facts relevant to bi-lateral educational exchange.

General:

Education not compulsory

Total number of students enrolled - 3,047,494 (1978)

Centralised administration - controlled by Ministry of Education

Language of instruction - (a) vernacular: Malay, Chinese or Tamil
(by 1982, Bahasa Malaysia anticipated to become the sole language of instruction through Form Upper VI, though English will be required as a second language)

(b) English

Percentage of population aged below 15 - 45% (1979)

Primary:

6 years, standard track for all students

Type of schools - (a) National Type Schools
medium of instruction - (i) Chinese (enrolled 32% of all primary students)
(ii) Tamil (enrolled 8% of all primary students)

(b) National Schools
medium of instruction - Malay (enrolled 60% of all primary students)

(c) Private Schools (subject to government regulation)
- enrolment negligible

Total number of primary students enrolled in government and government-aided schools: 1,967,314 (1978). This amount to 90.9% of all children aged 6-12.

Academic year and calendar - early January to mid-November (mid-April, early September vacation)

Assessment on students administered during Standard 5

Automatic promotion to Form 1 (first year of Lower Secondary school)

Certificate or degree granted - none

Secondary:

5 years - Form 1 - Form 3 = Lower secondary school
Form 4 - Form 5 = Upper secondary school

Lower Secondary School -
general education
number of students enrolled - 766,709 (1978) = 61% of age 13-15 group
medium of instruction - Malay
certificated granted - LCE (Lower Certificate of Education)
= SRP (Sijil Rendah Pelajaran)

Upper Secondary School -
streams of emphasis - (a) science stream
(b) arts stream
(c) technical stream

...2/

number of students enrolled - 237,743 (1978) = 24% of age 16-17 group
medium of instruction - Malay
certificate granted - MCE (Malaysia Certificate of Education)
= SPM (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia)
grading - 1-9, passing grade: 8
GCE (General Certificate of Education) - given to students who failed MCE, showing subjects passed

School Calendar - January to November

Post Secondary Education:
Total enrollment - 75,728 (1978)

(A) Certificate, Diploma Courses
Institutions offering such programs -
(i) Technical Colleges and Institutes (Years 1-3)
(ii) ITM (Institut Teknologi MARA) (Years 1-5) medium of instruction:English
(iii) Teacher Training Colleges (Years 1-3)

Certificates, Diplomas granted - after year 2 - Certificate
after year 3 - Diploma, Special Certificate
after year 5 - Advanced Diploma

(B) Pre-university schooling - Lower and Upper Sixth Form
enrolment - 5% of the appropriate age group (18-19)
certificate granted - HSC (Higher School Certificate) - grading:
(a) general paper - 1-9, passing grade:6
(b) principal subjects - A-E

(C) University Education
Minister of Education responsible for all matters pertaining to higher education
All application for admission processed by the Universities Central Admission Unit.
University Governance -
headed by chancellor
vice-chancellor - chief executive offices
council - executive body
senate - academic body
court - legislative and advising body
deans - heads of different faculties
faculty structure - professors, readers, senior lecturers, lecturers, assistant lecturers, tutors.

Grading - A, B, C, D, E.

Degrees conferred - B.A., B.S. (1st Class Honors)
B.A., B.S. (2nd Class Honors)
B.A., B.S. (General - not acceptable for postgraduate studies)
M.A., M.S.
Ph.D.

Length of program - Bachelor's degree - 3 years
Master's degree - 1-3 years
Doctorate - 2-6 years

Language of instruction - varies according to different universities

Academic Calendar - varies according to different universities

...3/

(D) Institution

(i) Universities

(a) University of Agriculture, Malaysia (Universiti Pertanian Malaysia)
Type - government
Location - Serdang (branch - Semengok in Sarawak)
Enrolment - 3,169
Degrees - diploma, undergraduate, graudate
Calendar - June to April - 2 nineteen week semesters
Language of instruction - English and Malay

(b) The University of Malaya (Universiti Malaya)
Type - government
Location - Kuala Lumpur
Enrolment - 8,534
Degrees - undergraduate, graduate, post-graduate diploma
Calendar - June to February, 3 terms
Language of instruction - English & Malay (from 1983 onwards, only Malay will be used)

(c) The National University of Malaysia (Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia)
Location - Bangi (20 miles south of Kuala Lumpur) (branch - Limauan in Sabah)
Degrees - undergraduate, graduate
Language of instruction- Malay

(d) The University of Science, Malaysia (Universiti Sains Malaysia)
Location - Minden, Penang
Degrees - undergraduate, graduate
Calendar - June to April , two terms

(e) University of Technology, Malaysia (Universiti Teknoloji Malaysia)
Type - government
Location - Kuala Lumpur (will move to Jahore Baharu in 1983)
Enrolment - 3,276
Calendar - June to March, 2 terms
Language of instruction - Malay
Degrees - undergraduate diploma, bachelor's degree
Language of instruction - Malay (English used for some subjects)

(ii) Others

(a) MARA Institute of Technology (Institut Teknoloji MARA) (ITM)
Location - Shah Alam
Type - government
Programs offered - technical training in various fields conferring various diplomas; Ohio University issues Bachelor of Business Administration degrees and M.A. degrees in Economic Education to ITM students; University of London offers the Bachelor of Laws degree and the University of Kentucky offers the M.A. degree program in Economics through ITM
Language of instruction - English

(b) Tunku Abdul Rahman College
Location - Kuala Lumpur
Type - government
Programs offered - Technical training conferring diplomas; pre-university studies

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(c) Technical Teacher's Training College
Location - Kuala Lumpur
Type - government
Programs offered - teacher training conferring teacher's certificate
Language of instruction - Malay

(d) Trade Teacher's Training College
Location - Alor Akar, Kuantan
Type - government
Programs offered - Trade/vocational teacher training conferring diploma

Number of national studying overseas - 36,000 (1978)

Bibliography -

(1) The Admission and Placement of Students from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore - Report of workshop, February 1979, Baguio, Philippines.

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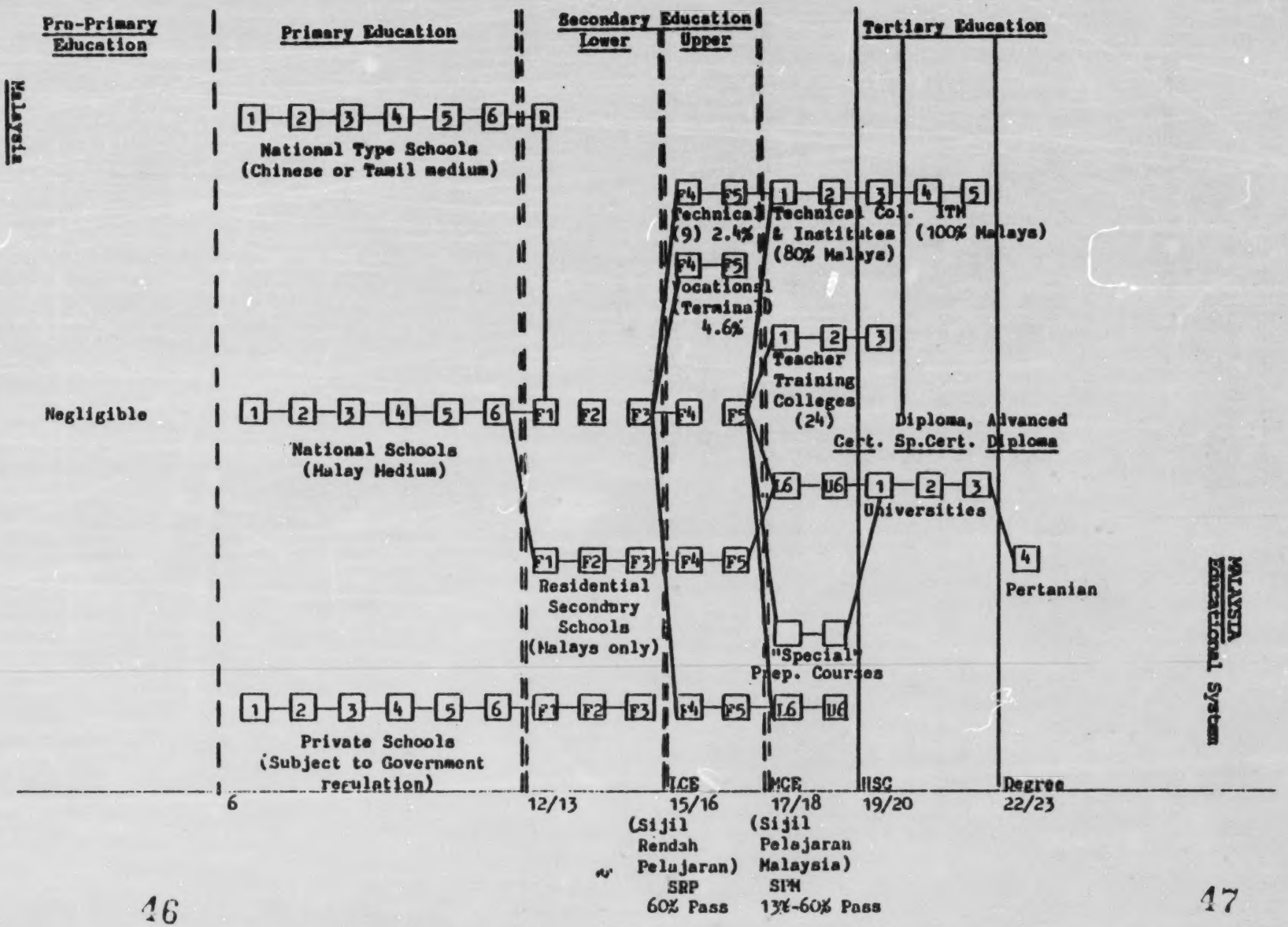
Pre-Primary Education
Primary Education
Secondary Education
Lower
Upper
Tertiary Education
MALAYSIA
1 2 3 4 5 6 R
National Type Schools
(Chinese or Tamil medium)
F4 F5
Technical
(9) 2.4%
1 2 3 4 5
Technical Col.
& Institutes
(80% Malays)
ITM
(100% Malays)
F4 F5
Vocational
(Terminal)
4.6%
1 2 3
Teacher
Training
Colleges
(24)
Negligible
1 2 3 4 5 6 F1 F2 F3 F4 F5
National Schools
(Malay Medium)
Diploma, Advanced
Cert. Sp.Cert. Diploma
L6 U6 1 2 3
Universities
F1 F2 F3 F4 F5
Residential
Secondary
Schools
(Malays only)
4
Pertanian
"Special"
Prep. Courses
1 2 3 4 5 6 F1 F2 F3 F4 F5 L6 U6
Private Schools
(Subject to Government
regulation)
MALAYSIA
Educational System
6
12/13
15/16
17/18
19/20
22/23
LCE
(Sijil
Rendah
Pelajaran)
SRP
60% Pass
MCE
(Sijil
Pelajaran
Malaysia)
SPM
13%-60% Pass
ISC
Degree

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROFILE

Name of Country - The Philippines

The IIE country profile series is intended as a basic summary of facts relevant to bi-lateral educational exchange.

General:

Compulsory education - ages 7-12; free at public schools

7-24 years age group as a percent of the total national population - 41.8% (1978)

Education's proportion of the national budget - 13.4%

Preschool Programs:

Nursery, kindergarten and preparatory programs are ½ day programs

Offered mainly in private schools; also some in public schools

Primary Education:

6 years; 4-year primary program and 2-year intermediate program

Some private schools offer 7-year programs, but enroll less than 4% of the age group

Enrollment (1978) - 7.9 millions: 95% in public schools, 5% in private schools

Average student-teacher ratio - 29:1

Language of instruction - English and Pilipino

Grading system - grades reported on a 0 to 100 scale, with 75 the minimum passing grade

Percent of 7-12 age group enrolled: 98% (1978) - highest in Asia

Academic year - June-March; April and May constitute a summer vacation

Secondary Education:

Enrollment (1978) - 2.5 millions - 51% public, 49% private

4 years: 2-2 plan; 2 years of general education, followed by either 2 years of college preparatory studies or 2 years of vocational studies leading to employment

Percent of 13-16 age group enrolled - 38.2%

6 sources of funding - national, provincial, city, municipal, barangay, and private

Academic year - June-March; April and May constitute a summer vacation

Grading system - on a 0 to 100 scale.

...2/

Grading Scales

%	Grades		
97-100	A	(1.00)	- Excellent
94- 96	A-	(1.50)	- Very Good
91- 93	B+	(1.75)	- Good
88- 90	B	(2.00)	- Above Average
85- 87	B-	(2.25)	- Average
80- 84	C+	(2.50)	- Below Average
75- 79	C or D*	(3.00 or 3.50)	- Barely Passing
0- 74	D** or F	(4.00 or 5.00)	- Failure

* A grade of D may be a failing grade in some schools, but barely passing for others.

** Some schools use 5 as the highest grade, with 1 the lowest.

Non-formal education programs were also developed to provide functional literacy, vocational and occupational skills, leadership training for nonformal education staff members and community leaders, civic and citizenship, training, and cultural and recreational training.

Types of secondary schools -
regular secondary schools
science high schools - (1) Manila Science High School
(2) Philippine Science High School
(3) Quezon City Science High School
(4) Cebu City Science High School

Philippine High School for the arts -
- established in June 1977
- supported by the national government
- offers regular secondary school curriculum with practical arts/ vocational courses and elective courses in dance, music, theater, and visual arts instead of other vocational and academic fields.

Barangay (Barrio) High Schools
- a barangay is a community within a city or rural area
- supported by student fees
- serve students who would otherwise be forced to terminate their education after grade 6 because of the unavailability of regular secondary schools in rural areas

Vocational High Schools
- offer specialized curricula via vocational electives

Special Schools: Jose Fabella Memorial School
- the school for crippled children
- the school for the deaf and blind

Unusual Private Schools
- offer 11-year or 12-year programs
- graduates of these schools are admitted to Philippine colleges and universities as beginning freshmen

Chinese Schools
- 157 private Chinese schools and one college: Chiang Kai-Shek College in Manila
- the 1975 constitution prohibits any school from serving only aliens; aliens can represent no more than 1/3 of the enrollment

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U.S. Style Schools - Manila International School
- offers coeducational day classes from kindergarten to grade 12, including a college-preparatory curriculum
- Brent School in Baguio and Faith Academy in Cainta offer grades K-12 on the American 8+4 pattern, with a college-preparatory curriculum

Higher Education:

Official control of higher education - Ministry of Education and Culture
- Bureau of Higher Education

Academic calendar - June-March; April and May constitute a summer vacation (semester system) Some schools offer special summer terms

Types of higher education institutions -

Public institutions
- 14 universities, 141 colleges and schools, 96 technical/vocational schools and 39 community colleges (1978)
- offers both 2-year associate degree programs and 4-year Bachelor's degree programs
- some also offer master's and doctoral programs

Private institutions
- 46 universities, 490 colleges and schools, 171 technical/vocational schools
- enrollment - 83% of all tertiary level students (1977/78)
- offers undergraduate and graduate certificate, diploma and degree programs
- must obtain specific authorization from the Ministry of Education and Culture before degrees can be awarded

Language of instruction - English, however, a policy of bilingualism has been adopted recently, with Pilipino and English as the media

Grading System -

%	Grade	Numerical Equivalent	
97-100	A	1.00	- Excellent
94- 96	A-	1.50	- Very Good
91- 93	B+	1.75	- Good
88- 90	B	2.00	- Above Average
85- 87	B-	2.25	- Average
80- 84	C+	2.50	- Below Average
75- 79	C or D	3.00 or 3.50	- Barely Passing
Failed	D	4.00 or 5.00	- Failure

Degrees -

Undergraduate - (1) Certificate or diploma - 6 months to 5 years of study
(2) Associate degree - 2 years and can either enter employment or transfer into a bachelor's degree program
(3) Bachelor's degree - 4 years

Graduate - (1) Master's degree - 1 or 2 years and a thesis
(2) Doctoral degree - 2 or 3 years of study beyond the master's degree. A dissertation is required.

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General guidelines on admission of students from abroad -
Foreign students seeking admission must satisfy general admissions requirements for Filipino students and in addition, the following:-

(1) Appropriate visa and Certificate of Alien Registration (ACR), Bureau of Immigration
(2) Evaluation of Transcript of Records and Study Permit issued by the Bureau of Private Schools, Department of Education and Culture
(3) Submission of complete academic record and description of course thereof
(4) The foreign student must be proficient in English - advisable to submit score of a test of English proficiency, e.g. TOEFL

Policy and procedures for validation of degrees, transfer of credit -
This is done by reviewing the copy of the applicant's transcript of record, the original of the degree and course descriptions.

Number of nationals presently studying in the U.S. - 2,460 (1978/79)

Main in-country information sources in U.S. education:-
Philippine-American Educational Foundation
Teodorica Apartments
1148 Roxas Boulevard
Manila

Immigration Requirements for Foreign Students:-
Accepted foreign students are sent an official letter of admission which they may use for visa application purposes. Only foreign students with a 9-f visa (student), and dependents of the Army and the Diplomatic Corps with any of these types of visa: (1) FGO: (2) 9-e; (3) 47-a-2; or (4) diplomatic passport, may be allowed to enroll.

All non-immigrant foreign students are also required to obtain a Study Permit from the Department of Education and Culture before enrollment for each semester.

Foreign students can get assistance from the universities which accepted them in obtaining their study permit and student visas, and in their accommodations, arrivals, as well as academic and social adjustments.

List of Philippines Higher Education Institutions

Adamson University - private catholic; enrollment: 10,067	Degrees: Undergraduate Graduate
Araneta University Foundation - private; enrollment: 5,953	" "
Arellano University - private; enrollment: 7,745	" "
Asian Institute of Management - private; enrollment: 251	Degrees: Graduate
Ateneo de Davao College - private; enrollment: 1,746	Degrees: Undergraduate Graduate
Ateneo de Manila University - private; enrollment: 2,316	Degrees: Undergraduate Graduate
Baguio Colleges Foundation - private; enrollment: 3,814	Degrees: Undergraduate Graduate
Bicol University - public; enrollment: 4,053	" "
Cebu Normal College - public teacher-training Inst; enrollment:1,856	" "
Center for Research and Communication - private; enrollment: 73	Degrees: Graduate

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Central Luzon Teachers College - public teacher training institution; enrollment: 1,131	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
Central Philippine University - private; enrollment: 4,716	"	"
Centro Escolar University - private; enrollment: 7,908	"	"
College of the Holy Spirit - private; enrollment: 1,721	Degrees:	Undergraduate
De La Salle College - private; enrollment: 3,883	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
Far Eastern University - private; enrollment: 31,073	Degrees:	"
Foundation University - private; enrollment: 2,214	Degrees:	"
Leyte Normal School - public teacher training institution; enrollment: 879	Degrees:	"
Lyceum of the Philippines - private; enrollment: 6,844	Degrees:	"
Manuel L. Quezon University - private; enrollment: 16,407	Degrees:	"
Maryknoll College - private; enrollment: 819	Degrees:	Undergraduate
Mindanao State University - public; enrollment: NA	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
National Teachers College - private; enrollment: 3,971	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
National University - private; enrollment: 7,838	"	"
Northern Luzon Teachers College - public teacher training institution; enrollment: 1,311	"	"
Notre Dame of Marbel College - private; enrollment: 2,181	"	"
Notre Dame University - private; enrollment: 1,635	"	"
Philippine Christian College - private; enrollment: 1,983	"	"
Philippine College of Arts and Trades - public, enrollment: 4,647	"	"
Philippine Normal College - public teacher training institution; enrollment: 3,837	"	"
Philippine Women's University - private; enrollment: 6,448	"	"
Saint Joseph's College - private; enrollment: 446	Degrees:	Undergraduate
Saint Louis University - private, enrollment: 8,626	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
Saint Paul College of Dumaguete - private; enrollment: 547	Degrees:	"
Saint Paul College of Manila - private; enrollment: 1,512	Degrees:	Undergraduate
Saint Paul College of Tuguegarao - private; enrollment: 843	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
Saint Scholastica's College - private; enrollment: 668	Degrees:	Undergraduate
Saint Teresa's College of Cebu - private; enrollment: 225	Degrees:	"
San Beda College - private; enrollment: 758	Degrees:	"
Silliman University - private; enrollment: 3,719	Degrees:	Undergraduate Graduate
University of Baguio - private; enrollment: 6,648	Degrees:	"
University of the East - private, enrollment: 48,715	Degrees:	"
University of Manila - private; enrollment: 5,269	Degrees:	"
University of Mindanao - private; enrollment: 9,961	Degrees:	"
University of the Philippines at Diliman, Quezon City - public; enrollment: 20,429	Degrees:	"
University of the Philippines at Los Banos, Laguna - public; enrollment: 3,104	Degrees:	"
University of San Agustin - private; enrollment: 8,597	Degrees:	"
University of San Carlos - private; enrollment: 8,801	Degrees:	"
University of Santo Tomas - private; enrollment: 29,798	Degrees:	"
West Visayas State College - public teacher training school; enrollment: 790	Degrees:	"
Xavier University - private; enrollment: 2,417	Degrees:	"
Zamboanga State College - public teacher training college; enrollment: 1,116	Degrees:	"

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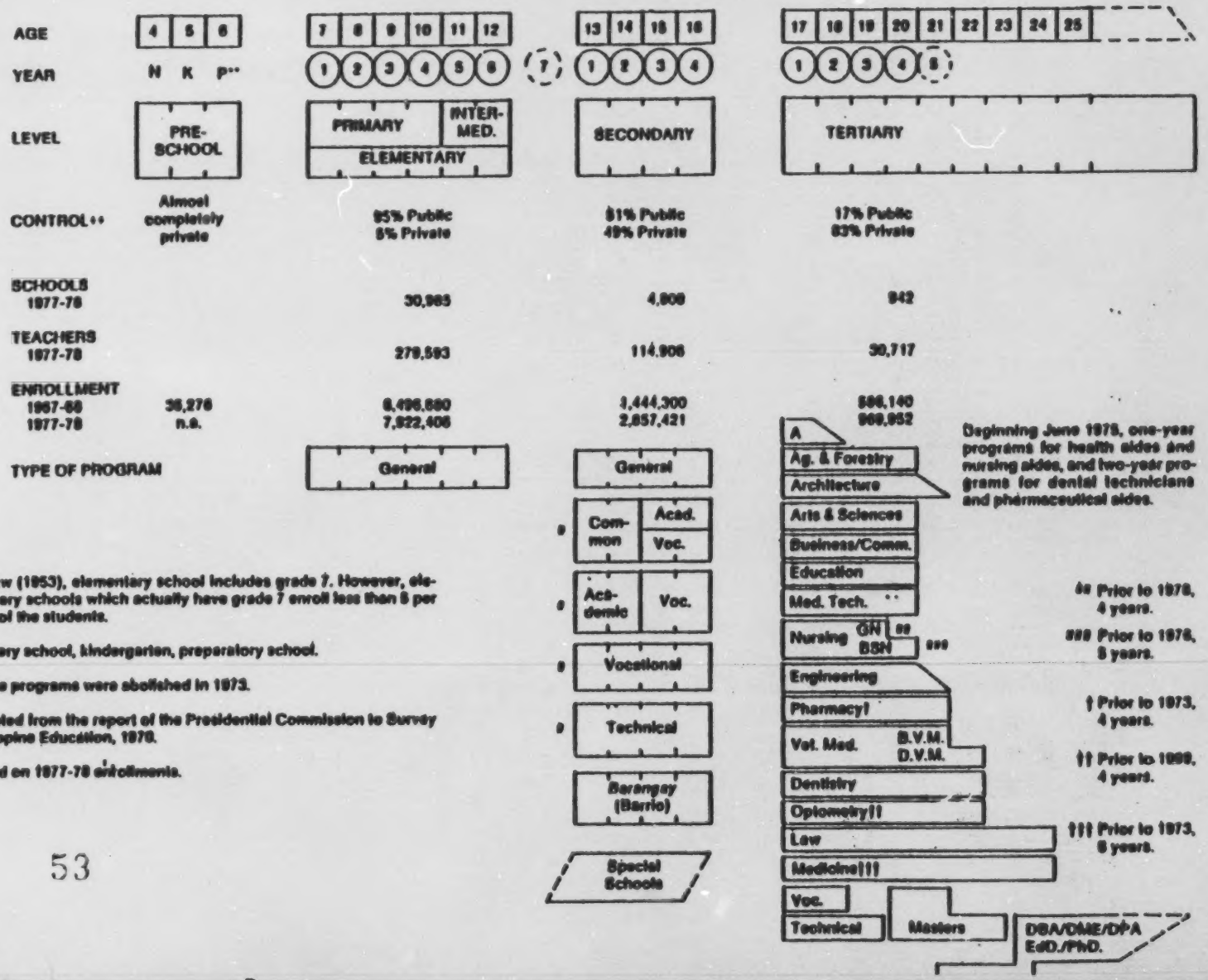
PHILIPPINES

STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION



Beginning June 1975, one-year programs for health aides and nursing aides, and two-year programs for dental technicians and pharmaceutical aides.

§ By law (1953), elementary school includes grade 7. However, elementary schools which actually have grade 7 enroll less than 5 per cent of the students.

** Nursery school, kindergarten, preparatory school.

§ These programs were abolished in 1973.

+ Adapted from the report of the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education, 1970.

++ Based on 1977-78 enrollments.

§§ Prior to 1978, 4 years.

§§§ Prior to 1978, 5 years.

† Prior to 1973, 4 years.

†† Prior to 1968, 4 years.

††† Prior to 1973, 5 years.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROFILE

Name of Country - Singapore

The IIE country profile series is intended as a basic summary of facts relevant to bi-lateral educational exchange.

General:

No compulsory education, primary education free

Group aged below 21 expressed as percentage of total population - 50% (1978)

Language of instruction - can be English, Chinese, Malay or Tamil. All pupils required to study two official languages, with English either as the first or second.

Ministry of Education responsible for planning and managing educational system, two major administration sub-division: (i) General Education Department, (ii) Technical Education Department.

Portion of government expenditure devoted to education expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure - 10%+ (1978/79)

Primary Education:

6 years, standard track for all students

Language of instruction - in 1975, schools employing English as medium of instruction enrolled almost 70% of all primary students; other media of instruction are Chinese, Malay and Tamil

Promotion not automatic; special classes provided for students who has failed the same level for 3 times; special course may last from 1 to 4 years (Basic 1 to Basic 4); after B4 stage students will be placed in the Junior Trainee Scheme (JTS) which offers employment for training on the job.

Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) administered at end of sixth year

Enrolment - 300,398 (1978)

Academic year - 2 semesters, January to May, July to November

New System Implemented Commencing January 1980

First 3 years emphasizes on learning of languages; after primary 3 students channeled into 3 different courses - normal bilingual course, extended bilingual course, monolingual course.

Normal Bilingual Course - student study 2 languages; complete primary education in 6 years; sit for Primary School Leaving Examinations; may proceed to secondary school

Extended Bilingual Course - student study 2 languages; complete primary education in 8 years; sit for Primary School Leaving Examinations; may proceed to secondary school

Monolingual Course - student study 1 language; complete primary education in 8 years; take an examination which, if passed, results in the award of a certificate; may join the vocational and Industrial Training Board for vocational training

Secondary Education:

4 years, divided into lower secondary school (2 years) and upper secondary school (2 years)

Lower secondary school - common curriculum except that girls may take either home economics or workshop practice

Upper secondary school - 3 main streams:
(i) Arts and science stream (in 1974, over 98% of secondary school graduates were of this stream)
(ii) Technical stream
(iii) Commercial stream

Language of instruction - majority English; if English not 1st medium, it must be taken as a second language

Certificate granted - Singapore-Cambridge General Certificate of Education "O" Level (Grading: 1 through 9--1 to 6 - GCE "O" Level Pass, 7 to 8 - below GCE "O" Level Pass, 9 - not recorded on Certificate; also 1-2 equivalent to A, 3-4 equivalent to B, 5-6 equivalent to C, 7 equivalent to D, 8 equivalent to E, 9 ungraded)

Academic year - 2 semesters, January to May, July to November

Enrolment - 179,811

New Education System To Be Implemented Commencing 1981

Students from primary school channeled into three streams basing on thier performance in the Primary School Leaving Examinations:

(i) secondary special course - study 2 languages; sit for the General Certificate of Education "O" Level Exams at end of fourth year; may proceed to pre-university course

(ii) secondary normal course - study 2 languages; sit for the General Certificate of Education "O" Level Exams at end of fourth year; may proceed to pre-university studies

(iii) secondary extended course - modified curriculum; sit for the Certificate of Secondary Education Exams at end of fourth year, those with good performance may sit for the General Certificate of Education "O" Level Exams after another year of study; others may go for vocational training

Post-Secondary Education:

(A) Pre-university studies

2 years, or 3 years (for those who have not done well in "O" level exams and weak in English)

3 different streams of emphasis - (i) arts, (ii) science, (iii) commercial

Certificate granted: Singapore-Cambridge General Certificate of Education - "Advanced Level" (Grading: A,B,C,D,E - GCE "A" Level Pass, 'O' - 'Fail' at "A" Level but a concessionary pass at "O" Level

(B) Teacher Training

All training conducted by the Institute of Education; programs offered:

(i) Certificate in Education "O" Level (Preprimary and Lower Primary); program lasts 3 years; applicants must have successfully completed the 10th year of school

(ii) Certificate in Education "O" Level (Primary); program lasts 3 years; applicants must have successfuly completed the 10th year of school

(iii) Certificate in Education "A" Level; program lasts 3 years; applicants must have successfully completed pre-university studies

(iv) Advanced Certificate in Education; two year program; applicants must have teaching experience
(v) Diploma in Education; for university degree holders; awarded by University of Singapore
(vi) Master of Education and Ph.D. in education; awarded by the University of Singapore

(C) Technical Training
Institutions - Singapore Technical Institute, Ngee Ann Technical College, Singapore Polytechnic

Language of instruction - English

Programs offered - 2 year course granting Industrial Technician Certificate (ITC)
3 year diploma
technician diplomas, program length varies from subject to subject

(D) University Education
Governance -
Vice-Chancellor - chief executive officer
Council - supreme governing body
Senate - academic body responsible for instruction, research, examination, degrees, diplomas and certificates
Degrees offered - undergraduate, graduate, professional
Program length - general undergraduate degree (First-Class Honors, Second-Class Honors, Third-Class Honors, Pass) - 3 years
Undergraduate Honors Degree - 4 years
Professional degrees - vary according to different fields

Universities

(i) The University of Singapore
Location - Kent Ridge
Enrolment - 6,561 (1978/79)
Academic year - 2 terms, from July to March
Language of instruction - English
Status - public

(ii) Nanyang University
Location - North-West part of Singapore
Enrolment - 2,130 (1977/78)
Language of instruction - English
Status - public

Other institutions of higher education

(i) Institute of Education
Type - governmental
Certificates granted - various certificates and diplomas in education

(ii) Ngee Ann Technical College (NATC)
Location - Clementi Road, Singapore
Type - public
Academic year - April-August and November-March, two 18 week sessions
Language of instruction - English
Certificates granted - Technician diplomas in various technical fields

(iii) Singapore Polytechnic
Location - Prince Edward Road, Singapore
Type - governmental
Language of instruction - English
Certificates granted - Technician diplomas, Diplomas, Technician Certificates in various fields

(c) Technical Teacher's Training College
Location - Kuala Lumpur
Type - government
Programs offered - teacher training conferring teacher's certificate
Language of instruction - Malay

(d) Trade Teacher's Training College
Location - Alor Akar, Kuantan
Type - government
Programs offered - Trade/vocational teacher training conferring diploma

Number of national studying overseas - 36,000 (1978)

Bibliography -

(1) The Admission and Placement of Students from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore - Report of workshop, February 1979, Baguio, Philippines.

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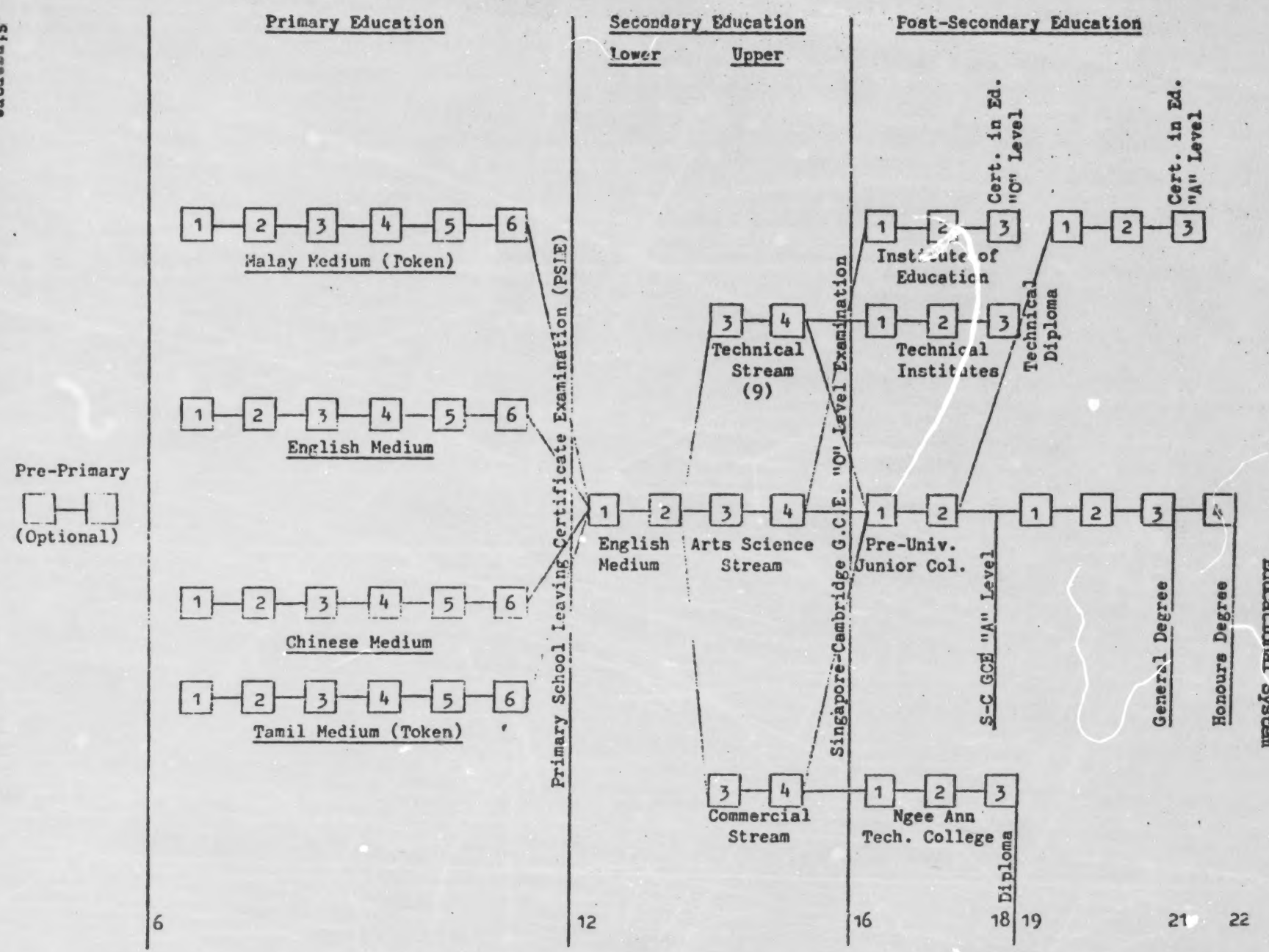
Singapore


Primary Education
Secondary Education
Lower
Upper
Post-Secondary Education
Malay Medium (Token)
English Medium
Chinese Medium
Tamil Medium (Token)
Pre-Primary
(Optional)
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination (PSLE)
Technical Stream (9)
Commercial Stream
English Medium
Arts Science Stream
Singapore-Cambridge G.C.E. "O" Level Examination
Institute of Education
Technical Institutes
Ngee Ann Tech. College
Pre-Univ. Junior Col.
Cert. in Ed. "O" Level
Cert. in Ed. "A" Level
Technical Diploma
S-C GCE "A" Level
Diploma
General Degree
Honours Degree
SINGAPORE Educational System
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INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROFILE

Name of Country - Thailand

The IIE country profile series is intended as a basic summary of facts relevant to bi-lateral educational exchange.

General:

Compulsory education through 6th grade

More than 20% of national budget alloted to education

Primary Education:

6 years, standard track for all students

Private school enrollment began to decrease starting from 1972

Language of instruction - Thai

Certificate or diploma - none

Secondary Education:

Two systems operating concurrently

(A) 1961-1977 system - divided into lower secondary school (3 years) and upper secondary school (2 years)
Lower secondary school divided into 2 streams -
(i) general (academic stream), (ii) vocational stream
system will be completely phased out in 1982

(B) Present system - implementation first effected in 1978, will completely replace the old system in 1983
Divided into lower secondary school (3 years) and upper secondary school (3 years)

Standard track lower secondary school, old vocational stream abolished

Grading system - 0%-100%, passing mark 50%

Certificate or diploma -
before 1976 - Matayom Suksa V examination -- administered by Ministry of Education, certificate granted by the same

from 1976 - Matayom Suksa V examination replaced by locally administered high school leaving examinations. Secondary school certificates granted to students who have passed the leaving examinations by local authorities

Vocational education - three year programs from M.S. IV (grade 11) to M.S. VI (grade 13) offered in Vocational and Technical Schools
M.S. VI examinations - administered by Ministry of Education, results in the granting of Higher Secondary Vocational School Certificate to successful students; represents one more year of study than general secondary school study

Teacher training - Certificate of Education - graduates of lower secondary school (M.S. III) who pass the Department of Teacher Training (Ministry of Education) entrance examination may enter a two-year training program leading to this certificate. This will be phased out in 1981.

Language of instruction employed in secondary education - Thai

Post-Secondary Education:

(A) Vocational and Technical Education
2 or 3 years postsecondary (technician) diploma programs offered in technical institutes
admission into technical institutes very competitive, only 37% of applicants (total No. 27,658) were admitted in 1976

academic year - 2 semesters -- June to mid-October and November to mid-March

(B) Teacher Training
mostly carried out in 36 Teacher Training Colleges, 17 of which are authorised to grant the B.Ed. (Bachelor of Education) degree.

The Higher Certificate of Education - trains lower secondary school teachers (will also be required for elementary school teachers after the Certificate of Education program is phased out); 2-year post-secondary program

B.Ed - 4-year degree granting program training teachers for upper seocndary school

(C) University Education
Government control - (1) Office of University Affairs (OUA) - responsible for the 13 public universities and 10 private colleges
(2) various government ministries

Institution governance -
(a) public universities - the university council -- chief governing body
Rector - chief executive officer for institutional administration
Dean - chief executive officer of the faculty

(b) private colleges - system wide governing -- the Private College Commission
institution governance--The Administrative Board

Role of public universities - fulfilment of general educational goals

Role of private colleges - oriented towards manpower training, especially in the field of business administration

Enrollment - government universities -- 130,965 (undergraduates + graduates 1975)
private colleges -- 13,110 (1975)

Certificate and degree - diploma, bachelor, master, Ph.D.

Program length - bachelor -- normally 4 years; master -- normally 2 years

Grading system - public universities, normally as follows:
A (Excellent) = 4 quality points; B (Good) = 3;
C (Fair) = 2; D (passed) = 1; E (Failed) = 0

private universities - varies from institution to institution

The Joint Higher Education Entrance Examination (JHEEE) - required for admission consideration by all private colleges and state universities, except Ramkhamhaeng, the "open" university

Total expense on higher education as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) - 0.62% (1975)

Language of instruction - essentially Thai; English may be used in some advanced level programs, or in some private colleges

Universities and Colleges

(1) Chiang Mai University (CMC) - address: Huay Kaew Road, Chiang Mai
Calendar: June-November, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraduate, graduate; Enrollment: 8,085 (1977)

(2) Chulalongkorn University - address: Phya Thai Road, Bangkok 5
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraudate, graduate; Enrollment: 15,260 (1977)

(3) The Institute of Agricultural Technology (IAT) - address: Sansai-Prao Road Sansai District, Chiang Mai
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 205 (1977)

(4) Kasetsart University - address: Phaholyodhin Road, Bangkok 9 (Bangkhaen)
Calendar: June-November, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraduate, graduate; Enrollment: 7,230 (1977)

(5) Khon Kaen University - address: Srithan Sub-District, Khon Kaen
Calendar: Mid-June to mid-October; mid-November to mid-March; Status: public;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 3,046 (1976)

(6) King Mongkut's Institute of Technology (KMIT) - address:(i) Thonburi Campus-Praiha-Uthit Road, Ratburana, Bangkok 14; (ii) North Bangkok Campus-Piboolsongkram Road, Bang Sue, Bangkok 8; (iii) Northaburi-Ladkrabang Campus-(a) Pracharat Road, Muang District, Northaburi, Bangkok 19, (b) Ladkrabang Borough, Bangkok 23

(7) The National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) - address: Klong Chan, Pattana-Samakkee Road, Bangkok 24
Calendar: July-November, December-April; Status: public;
Degree : graduate; Enrollment: 950 (1977)

(8) Prince of Songkla University - address: Main Campus in Korkong Sub-District, Haad-Yai, Songkla; second campus in Roosameelae, Pattani; Extension Centre at Phuket
Calender: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraduate; professional degree in medicine; Enrollment: 2,304

(9) Ramkhamhaeng University - address: Klong Tan, Huamark Road, Bangkok 24
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degree : undergraduate; Grading system: G (Good) = 4 quality points, P (pass) - 2.25, F(Fail) = 0; Enrollment: 160,000 (1977)

(10) Silpakorn University - address: Na Phralan Road, Bangkok 2
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraduate, graduate; Enrollment: 2,020 (1977)

(11) Sri Nakharinwirot University - address: 8 campuses, 4 in Bangkok, the others in Chon Buri Moha Sarakham, Phitsanulok and Songkla
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraduate and graduate; Enrollment: 5,188 (1977)

(12) Thammasat University - address: Prachan Road, Bangkok 2
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: public;
Degrees : undergraduate, graduate

(13) Asian Institute of Technology (AIT) - address: 42 Km. North of Bangkok, (P.O. Box 2754)
Calendar: September-December, January-April, April-August; Status: public;
Degree : graduate; Enrollment: 1,057; Language of instruction: English

(14) Assumption Business Administration College (ABAC) - address: Huamark Sub-Borough Bankapi, Bangkok 24
Status : private;
Degree : bachelor's degrees in business; Enrollment: 1,104 (1976)

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(15) Bangkok College - address: 40/4 Rama IV Road, Prakanong, Bangkok 11
Calendar: June-October/November-March (day students), July-November/ November-April/April-July (evening students); Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 2,341 (1976)

(16) The College of Commerce - address: Superhighway, Phya Thai, Wipawadeerunpit Road, Bangkok 4
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 4,700 (1977)

(17) The College of Business Administration - address: 73, Roma VI Road, Bangkok 4
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 1,366 (1976)

(18) Krirk College - address: 65 Sukhumwit Road, Samut Prakarn, Bangkok 29
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 670 (1977)

(19) Payap College - address: 48/5 Huay Kaew Road, Chiang Mai
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: private (founded by American missionaries)

(20) Saengtham College - address: 1/20 Petkasem Road, Sampran District, Nakhon Pathom
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 90 (1977)

(21) Siam Technical College - address: 235 Petkasem Road, Phasi Charoen, Bangkok 16
Calendar: June-October, November-March; Status: private;
Degree : B.B.A.

(22) South-East Asia College - address: 19/1 Petkasem Road, Nongkhaem, Bangkok 16
Calendar: July-November, December-April; Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 347 (1977)

(23) Sri Pathum College - address: 61 Phaholyodhin Road, Bangkhen, Bangkok 9
Calendar: June-November, November-April; Status: private;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 1,134 (1977)

(24) Mahachulalongkorn Buddhist University - address: Wat Mahadhatu, Bangkok 2
Calendar: May-October, October-March; Status: private, Buddhist;
Degree : undergraduate; Enrollment: 208 (1977)

(25) Mahamakut Buddhist University - address: Wat Bovornives, Phra Sumene Road, Banglumpoo, Bangkok 2
Calendar: May-September, October-March; Status: private, Buddhist;
Degree : undergraduate

Military Education

(1) The Armed Forces Academies Preparatory School

(2) Chulachomklao Royal Military Academy

(3) The Royal Thai Air Force Academy

(4) The Royal Thai Naval Academy

(5) The Police Cadet Academy

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Places for Advising on Studying Abroad:

(1) The Institute of International Education (IIE) - G.P.O. Box 2050, Bangkok, Thailand

(2) The U.S. International Communication Agency

(3) Thai Civil Service Commission

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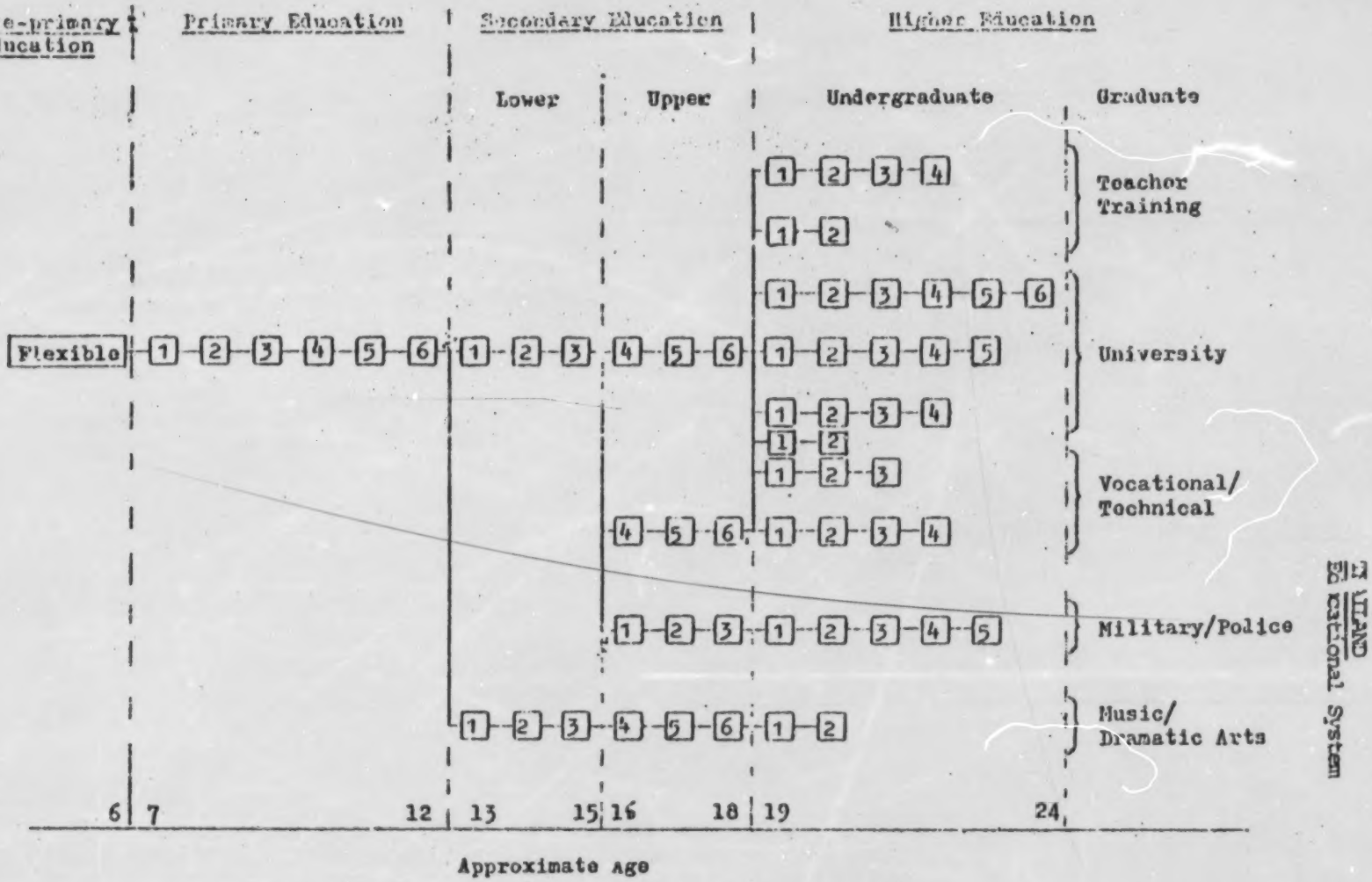


Chart I.2 Structure of Educational System B.E.2520 - 1977 A.D.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROFILE

Name of Country -- Indonesia

The IIE country profile series is intended as a basic summary of facts relevant to bi-lateral educational exchange.

General:

Compulsory education: ages 6-12 - school fees were officially abolished in January 1978

Primary Education:

6 years, standard track for all students (Grades 1-6)

Public primary schools are controlled by - (1) The Ministry of Home Affairs - overall administration

(2) The Ministry of Education & Culture - curriculum

Islamic schools - administered by The Ministry of Peligion

Private primary schools - 15% and under the Directorate General for Primary and Secondary schools of the Ministry of Education & Culture

Academic year - July - June

Enrollment - 15,550,124 in 80, 261 primary schools (1976) - 85% public
8% subsidized private
7% fully private

Age group - 6-12

Primary teachers are supposed to be graduates of teacher training schools (sekolah pendidikan guru), a type of senior secondary school

Teacher-student ratio - 1:37 at grade I, 1:22 at grade VI (1976)

Grading system - 10 - excellent
9 - very good
8 - good
7 - satisfactory
6 - fair
5 - conditional pass
4,3,2,1 - failure

A certificate or diploma is awarded at the completion of grade VI.

Secondary Education:

6 years - 3 years Junior Secondary, 3 years Senior Secondary

Public secondary schools - solely under the Ministry of Education & Culture

Islamic schools - administered by the Ministry of Religon

Private secondary schools - 64% and under the Directorate General for Primary and Secondary Schools of the Ministry of Education & Culture

Academic year - July-June

Age group - 12-18

Junior Secondary

Ages 12-15, Grades VII - IX

Enrollment - 2,136,067 in 8,265 schools (1976)

4 types of junior secondary schools (sekolah lanjutan tingkat pertama) and % of students enrolled in each are as follows:-

36% public
10% subsidized private
54% fully private

- Academic: General Junior Secondary School (Sekolah Menengah Pertama-SMP)
- Vocational: Technical Junior Secondary School (Sekolah Teknik-ST) 9%
- Vocational: Commercial Junior Secondary School (Sekolah Menengah Ekonomi Pertama - SMEP) 7%
- Vocational: Home Economics Junior Secondary School (Sekolah Kependidikan Ketrampilan Putri - SKKP) 2%

Curriculum - common curriculum during first 2 years, the third year (Grade IX) is divided into 2 academic streams (science & letters)

Teacher-student ratio - 1:42 at grade VII and 1:37 at grade IX (1976)

Admissions - based on primary school leaving exam and/or an entrance exam, and/or the ability to pay tuition
- a certificate or diploma is awarded at the completion of grade IX

Grading system - 10 - excellent
9 - very good
8 - good
7 - satisfactory
6 - fair
5 - conditional pass
4,3,2,1 - failure

Senior Secondary

Ages 15-18, Grades X - XII

Admissions - based on entrance exam and/or the ability to pay tuition

Enrollment - 933,033 in 3,141 schools (1976)

5 types of senior secondary schools and % of students enrolled:-

34% public
15% subsidized private
51% fully private

Academic: General Senior Secondary School (Sekolah Menengah Atas - SMA) 43%

Vocational: Technical Sr. S.S. (Sekolah Teknik Menengah -STM) 21%

Commercial Sr. S.S. (Sekolah Menengah Ekonomi Atas-SMEA) 19%

Teacher Training School (Sekolah Pendidikan Guru-SPG) 14%

Home Economics Sr. S.S. (Sekolah Kependidikan Ketrampilan Atas -SKKA) 3%

Curriculum - Determined by the Ministry of Education & Culture

The general/academic senior secondary schools have 3 academic streams: The exact science stream, the social science stream and the language & culture stream. During the first semester all students follow the same curriculum, they then move into one of the three streams according to preference and the school entrance exam results.

Curriculum of the vocational senior secondary schools is designed for terminal programs and thus tends to be narrow and specific to the vocation

Teacher-student ratio - 1:39 at Grade X (1976)
1:32 at Grade XII (1976)

Grading system - 10 - excellent
9 - very good
8 - good
7 - satisfactory
6 - fair
5 - conditional pass
4,3,2,1 - failure

A certificate or diploma is awarded at the completion of grade XII.

Higher Education:

Public institutions have much greater autonomy than the public primary and secondary schools in governance, staff promotions, textbook selection, testing and curriculum, and under control of the Ministry of Education & Culture

Private institutions must register with Ministry of Education & Culture

Academic year - July/August - June

Types of institutions - Universities

Institutes and advanced schools
- an institute which has only one discipline or a narrow field of study is an advanced school

Academies
- offer 3-year degree programs in administrative and technical skills

.../4

Indonesian higher education follows the Dutch system in framework of study time (5 years after 12 years of pre-university education) and the phasing of study (a 3-year degree, the sarjana muda, followed by a 2-year degree, the sarjana). The internal arrangements and regulations of study attempt to follow the American pattern (i.e. credit system, assignments, tutorials).

40 public universities and institutes
More than 300 private institutions - all supervised by the Ministry of Education & Culture

Types of private institutions -

The disamakan (equalized) category implies that the degree conferred by its faculty is equivalent to the degree conferred by a public institution

The diakui (recognized) category implies that the faculty of the private institution can confer a degree, but it is not equivalent to the degree awarded by a public institution. If the degree is to be equivalent to that of a public institution, the graduate must pass the state exam.

The degree of a terdaftar (listed) faculty is not considered equivalent to a degree from a public institution. The graduate of a listed faculty must also pass the state exam in order to be considered as equivalent to that of a public institution.

Degrees - 1st degree (Bachelor's) - sarjana muda (young scholar) degree - after completion of 3 years of coursework and a final exam and/or written report

the sarjana muda, which confers no title upon the graduate, is often referred to as a bakaloreat (baccalaureate) degree

2nd degree (Master's) - the sarjana lengkap (completed scholar) is awarded after an additional 2 years, a thesis and a final exam

3rd degree (Doctor's) - Doctoranda for women
Doctorandus for men

consists of coursework and a dissertation which requires 3 to 5 years after the master's degree

Grading system -

10,9	excellent	(A)
8	very good	(A)
7	good	(B)
6	successful	(C)
5.75	minimum pass	(C/D)
5	conditional pass	(D)
4,3,2,1	failure	(F)

Number of nationals presently studying in the U.S. - 2,230 (1978/79)

Main-in-country information sources in U.S. education:

Lembaga Indonesia - Amerika
P.O. Box 380
Jakarta, Indonesia

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

RH/al
4.81

MEXICO
Pacific Ocean
Gulf of Mexico
MEXICO CITY

OVERSEAS EDUCATION: MEXICO

Rene S. Greenwald

I welcome this opportunity to share with you recent political, social, and economic developments in Mexico that have or will have an effect on education. What I propose to do is begin by reviewing the historical relationship between Mexico and the United States. I will then address Mexico's economic outlook including its link to development and the implications for education. This will lead into an overview of recent trends in Mexican education and a description of Mexican educational agencies together with their plans for the future. I will conclude with a brief statement on study abroad programs in Mexico.

Historical Perspective

Mexico and the United States have historically found themselves, for geographical reasons, in an inescapable and complicated relationship. As continental neighbors sharing 3,000 kilometers of common border, we share benefits and disabilities as well as opportunities. Yet, as Mexican poet and essayist, Octavio Paz is quick to point out, "We are two distinct versions of western civilization." Paz further defines the two nations as "development and underdevelopment, wealth and poverty, power and weakness, domination and dependence." Mexico and the United States are the unavoidable couple with a classic love-hate relationship.

Historically, there has been armed conflict which cost Mexico almost half of her territory; military intervention when U.S. Armed Forces occupied Veracruz in 1914; and continuous economic and cultural penetration. Therefore, it should not be surprising that granted this history, Mexican attitudes toward the United States can be characterized by feelings of fear, resentment and frustration; however, these suspicions are mixed with admiration for U.S. know-how. As one Mexican friend puts it, "The same people who shout 'down with the Gringos,' want to buy U.S.-made clothes rather than Mexican, and they want to buy a big American car to drive around in." Most scholars will agree that there is far too little understanding on both sides of the border regarding how the other's system works. President Reagan further emphasized this point following his January 5, 1981 meeting with President Lopez Portillo in Ciudad Juarez, when he commented, "We've done too much talking about each other, and not enough talking to each other." I firmly believe that these suspicions and lack of understanding can be greatly eased by educational exchanges, which with time will serve to strengthen ties between the two nations.

Economic Outlook

The discovery of oil and natural gas enable Mexico to enter the society of powerful industrialized nations. The United States and Mexico can no longer take each other for granted and each must treat the other as it would wish to be treated.

It is essential to keep in mind that the real importance of Mexico's newly acquired oil wealth is the contribution it has and can make to Mexican development. Nobody questions that Mexico's oil discoveries literally pulled the country out of its rapid economic slide. Yet oil development, as we all know, is not labor intensive and does not directly produce many jobs -- the one thing Mexico needs most. However, oil development does give Mexico the leverage to create new industries.

President Lopez Portillo must be given credit for treating this fortune prudently -- as capital that must be used to increase Mexico's wealth and build the industrial and agricultural infrastructures necessary to insure a prosperous 21st century. Shortly after the size of the oil reserves was announced, President Portillo stated, "We cannot allow petroleum to go to our heads. We cannot be foolishly irresponsible or ambitious... We are not going to drown in a sea of petroleum."

Mexico is not Iran. Mexico is not Venezuela. Mexico is not just another oil country. The difference is that Mexico has a complex economic structure with a strong industrial base. It produces more steel than all the members of OPEC put together. Mexico does not have just oil; it is a beautiful country with beaches, mountains, sunny climate, fantastic museums, and beautiful handicrafts -- all of which make tourism its third largest industry. Mexico is a world champion in silver and is rich in gold. It also has large deposits of zinc, copper, uranium and iron.

Another positive economic factor is a remarkably stable government which has allowed Mexico to be the only Latin American country to have enjoyed half a century of stability. This has also been of major importance to the United States for national security.

Mexico is the United States' third most important trading partner in both exports and imports: only Canada and Japan are ahead of her. In 1980, 62 percent of all Mexican exports came to the United States. There has been a 50 percent increase in overall trade since 1979; this trend is expected to continue with another huge increase projected for 1981. As one might guess, oil and gas account for a large percentage of this upsurge.

Mexico's imports for 1980 totaled $18.5 billion, with 65 percent coming from the United States. Most of the U.S. exports to Mexico were agricultural products and technology related to energetics. During 1979 and part of 1980, Mexico suffered a severe drought which depleted her stocks. In 1980, huge amounts of wheat were sent to Mexico after the grain embargo against the Soviet Union; corn, beans, sorghum and non-fat dry milk were also high on the list. Mexico would like to be self-sufficient in corn and beans; however, due to water problems and population increase, she is no longer able to produce enough staple foodstuffs to keep up with the demand. It

is interesting to note that up to and including 1979 Mexico had a surplus in agricultural trade with the United States. In 1980, this changed and now the United States has a surplus and will continue to have for the next few years. According to a Mexican Government report, by 1985 more than half the foreign exchange derived from oil sales will be spent on food imports.

For 1980, Mexico's gross domestic product registered a real growth of 7.4 percent, marking the third consecutive year that the economy has grown at a rate above seven percent. This is one of the highest rates of real growth of any country in the world.

The Mexican Government has a "Global Development Plan," and decentralization is the bottom line. It is designed to guide all aspects of the economy, private as well as public. President Portillo hopes it will "improve the distribution of wealth between the people... and between geographical regions." Special emphasis will be placed on food, education, health services, housing, and communications, in an effort to develop an economy more like Japan's which is highly industrialized but labor intensive.

There is; however, another side of this golden "Centenario" coin--inflation. Inflation is running at 30 percent yearly according to the Bank of Mexico, although most people will agree it is somewhat higher. I might also add that there are no signs of it going down. The Government believes it is not a problem and must be tolerated in order to sustain a high percentage of growth. Perhaps they are right, but only time will tell. One thing is certain, few countries have taken such dramatic leaps in recent times and Mexico's record breaking economic growth has earned her admiration plus new friends from around around the world. Mexican novelist Carlos Fuentes asks all friends to "...remember Mexico is a nation, not an oil well."

Education

It is difficult to present all of the important changes which have and are occurring in the Mexican educational system. During recent years, the system of education required -- and still requires -- many readjustments and radical transformations in order to modernize itself and become adequate for deep and rapid changes consistent with the country and the world.

Of Mexico's 68 million inhabitants, 55 percent are under the age of 19. One-third of the population has not even completed elementary school. In view of these facts, the Ministry of Public Education faces a monumental task. President Portillo stressed in his fourth State of the Union message the "enormous importance of the work of education." In an effort to coordinate Mexico's development needs, the Ministry of Public Education has prepared a six-point plan which will remain in effect until 1982 (when there will be a change in Presidents). It's objectives are:

1. to assure a primary level education for all school age children;
2. to offer primary and secondary education to adults;
3. to promote mid-level technical programs and to link these programs with the productive system of goods and services;

4. to improve the quality of teacher training;

5. to promote the habit of reading; and

6. to decentralize administrative procedures and educational services in order to better distribute educational opportunities throughout the different geographical regions of Mexico.

This is an ambitious plan which the government hopes will improve primary and secondary education for both children and adults.

The National Autonomous University's new Rector, Octavio Rivero Serrano, stated in a press interview earlier this year, that both the Government and parents are to be blamed for the present shortage in urgently needed technicians. He claimed that the Government proved unable to root out the historical prejudices against technical degrees and that parents were at fault for insisting upon traditional professions as the only means of social recognition. These attitudes have had a long history in Mexico.

One example of how the Secretariat is tackling this problem is that in 1979 enrollment in technical schools at the senior high school level was 35,000; today, it is well over 50,000. By 1982, this figure is expected to increase by 150 percent indicating that as many as one-fifth of all junior high school students will enter intermediate terminal career programs. The National School of Professional Technical Education (CONALEP) was created by presidential decree in late 1977 to specifically meet the needs for technicians at the middle level. Currently, there are 62 plants--12 in Mexico City--funneling their graduates directly into the work force. The private sector cooperates with the Government on this program by providing scholarships, land, buildings, and most importantly, a list of future manpower needs. This indicates progress being made in the training of human resources who will later contribute to the development of industrial districts as well as the petroleum and agricultural sectors. However, what is being done now is only the tip of the iceberg.

The National Pedagogical University, created in 1976, is now considered the main foundation on which efforts will be based to improve the quality of teacher training. It presently serves more than 50,000 teachers working at 62 units scattered throughout the Republic by means of a system called "Long Distance Education." In Mexico City, there are 3,000 teachers in their fifth semester plus 200 in postgraduate courses.

Traditionally in Mexico, primary school teachers held the equivalent of a U.S. high school diploma. Secretary of Education Fernando Solana suggested in a recent speech that this be changed and that all teachers have a university degree. Much to many people's surprise, it was very well received, and the Ministry is in the process of introducing legislation which will allow for this change.

The Regional Technical Institutes, which are under the jurisdiction of the Public Education Secretariat, offer free secondary and higher education in technical fields, by geographical regions. They were founded over 30 years ago and today, in response to Mexico's most urgent needs, their emphasis is on agriculture, oil related fields, mining, and chemistry. The Secretariat looks at these Institutes, the CONALEPs, and the more than 1,000 other technical schools as

technical support through education to regional development. These programs may seem impressive; but unfortunately Mexico's unanticipated and explosive growth did not allow for the necessary adjustments in the area of human resources. Only recently have government and educational agencies begun to coordinate efforts to resolve their growing pains.

As was stated earlier, Mexico is not an ordinary developing country. It is the only developing country to have a common border with an industrial giant and education has benefited from this proximity.

Mexico does not have to be burdened by the cost of armaments and a heavy military establishment. The only arms acquired are those needed for internal security. To better appreciate this situation, one only has to look at the budgets of other Latin American nations that live next to a comparable rival such as Brazil and Argentina, Chile and Peru, Colombia and Venezuela. Each of these countries spend much more per capita than Mexico in armaments. This year the education sector is receiving 13.64 percent of the national budget, as compared to 1.79 percent for national defense. Although the percentage is down somewhat from previous years, it is important to note that only the public debt and the Ministry of Finance and Public Credit received higher percentages than education.

Historically, education in Mexico dates back to approximately 200 B.C. when the Mayas had indigenous institutions of higher learning. Anthropologists have stated that higher education among the Mayas was so important that for centuries a large part of the Mayan social stability and power depended on it. Due to the destruction of Mayan scriptures and artifacts by the "Conquistadores" little is known today of the exact methods through which they reached their outstanding achievements in architecture, sculpture, painting, mathematics, and astronomy, except that all these subjects were taught to the teenage sons of noble families in boarding schools run by Priests. This tradition of higher education for sons of "good" families remained with Mexico. These sons only studied law, medicine, or for the priesthood. Even when engineering began to be accepted as an alternative, its civil branch drew the most students. It was not until the mid-1950s that the National Autonomous University of Mexico began to offer chemical, mechanical and electrical engineering.

A more recent example of change in fields of study being offered is when the Autonomous Metropolitan University opened its doors in 1974, only three students enrolled in metallurgical engineering. Today, 50 are registered and about 250 are to be enrolled annually by 1985. Meanwhile, the demands of domestic metallurgical industries for trained engineers have exceeded the supply, especially in the growing steel industry.

In another example of adapting curriculums to the country's needs, Mexico has decided not to allow any new medical schools to open. Instead, emphasis will be placed on improving the quality of those already functioning and pressures will be placed on them to reduce the number of students.

The National University (UNAM) decided a few years ago to make a total institutional effort in response to national development needs and as a means of better managing its own growth. At that time 25,000 students were enrolled in its medical school--probably the largest in the world. Today the number of entering students has been reduced by 50 percent in an effort to meet development demands.

Decentralization and planned growth are the major ingredients. The National University has always been under tremendous pressure for expansion with which even its giant campus has been unable to cope. In 1974, UNAM branched out into five new national professional schools--known as ENEPS--which function as modern, multidisciplinary universities. Three campuses were located in the northwestern and two in the eastern areas of Mexico City. In contrast to UNAM's faculties which are selfcontained and uni-disciplinary, each campus has a specific academic orientation such as the social sciences or medical and health sciences including psychology. Enrollment is kept at about 20,000 and both teaching and research is stressed. Whereas UNAM is notorious for sporadic class attendance by both professors and students, just the opposite has proven to be the case at the ENEPS.

UNAM began to think of planned growth in 1973 when its senior high school--preparatory level: grades 10, 11 and 12--enrollment accounted for over half of the total student population. Shortly thereafter, UNAM set a limit on the number of entering senior high school students and university freshmen at 40,000 each. Since 1975, UNAM has managed to keep this ceiling: in 1980 there were just over 143,000 preparatory level students, as compared to 151,000 university level. Special low quotas have been placed in the law, medical, veterinary science, dentistry, and psychology departments. UNAM has also undertaken an active vocational counseling program to inform students of the numerous non-traditional academic majors available which are in great demand in both the public and private sectors.

UNAM continues to work closely with the Government by nurturing novice public state universities in the provincial areas, by participating in exchange programs for academic personnel, and by assisting with local research. It is hoped that injections of UNAM's expertise will enable these universities to satisfy their young citizens' needs and thus stem the traditional student exodus to the Federal District. Today, UNAM accounts for approximately 20 percent of all undergraduate and 70 percent of all graduate students.

Monterrey Institute of Technology--a private institution--has been very supportive of the Government's goal to decentralize education. It was founded in the mid-1940s by the powerful Monterrey industrial group and modeled after Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Monterrey has 17 branches located throughout the Republic. It is fully accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and is considered the top technical institution of higher learning in the country. Before a new campus is opened, a regional

survey is conducted by Tech officials to find out the needs. These results determine the curriculum. Tech must have financial and technical assistance from the business community before a campus is opened. Three new campuses are scheduled for 1981, and according to a Tech official, "We have many offers and are making every effort to expand as fast as possible without sacrificing quality. What we strive for is a good balance between theoretical and applied studies."

CONACYT

Now let's take a look at the National Council of Science and Technology, or CONACYT as it is known to your Mexican students. CONACYT was created in 1970 by then President Luis Echeverria. It is an independent, government agency reporting directly to the President. It's Director General, Dr. Edmundo Flores, is the President's scientific adviser. CONACYT researches the technology requirements of private enterprise, education, and the public sector to determine their specific needs in order to provide support for their growth. Since 1971, CONACYT's budget has grown at a rate of approximately 50 percent annually, and its 1981 allocation is $86.9 million. The Inter-American Development Bank granted CONACYT a $20 million loan in 1977 which was matched by an additional $20 million locally. A second loan for $40 million was approved in 1980. Mexico is currently negotiating a third loan with the Inter-American Development Bank for $80 million, and hopes to receive it this year.

With the discovery of large oil and natural gas reserves, President Portillo asked CONACYT a couple of years ago to coordinate the preparation of a new national program for science and technology. The program deals with current economic policy for access to conventional and non-conventional energy sources, the need to become self-sufficient in food production, the urgency of improving public health throughout the country, the struggle against unemployment, and the achievement of self-determination in science and technology. The program has been grouped into nine priority areas. Chart 1 (included in the appendix) lists these designated priority areas, and the number of new scholarships awarded in 1980: the majority of grants were in the social sciences, industry, and public administration. The projected number of scholarships for 1981 and 1982 is included in Chart 2. CONACYT plans to have 11,600 new scholarships during the next two years. This will give them a total of 19,095 for the 1979-82 period which is 10 percent above their goal. Increases are expected, based on needs, in energy sources, industry, agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry, construction, transportation, and communications. Decreases will be mainly in the social sciences and public administration.

Chart 3 outlines the subject majors included in each of the priority areas. CONACYT's orientation department prepares lists that include each field of study offered at national institutions and those outside Mexico. To get on this list a school must be recommended by CONACYT staff, one of their grantees, or a member of their advisory board. Being on a list is almost a guarantee that you will receive applications from CONACYT-sponsored students. CONACYT welcomes new names to their "Magic Lists" and, they have asked that I mention to you specifically,

if your institutions has a particularly strong department in any of these areas to please write CONACYT. They would like a full description of the curriculum offered as well as the names of the professors. The more supportive documentation you can send will assist them in determining if your university should be added to the list.

The diagrams on the left on Chart 4 depict the academic level of the new grantees for 1980 as well as the total number including renewals. As in the past, the majority of the students are at the graduate level: over 2,100 grants in 1980. The pies on the right of Chart 4 tell us in what country their students are currently studying. The trend is toward students remaining in Mexico as new graduate programs open which will decrease the percentage going to the United States. However, since the program is growing in size, the overall numbers will increase. It is estimated that there are approximately 2,300 CONACYT-sponsored students currently studying in the United States of which 780 began their studies in 1980.

CONACYT signed an agreement in 1980 with the League for Innovation--which has 300 community college members. The program designed for 12-18 months duration will offer theoretical as well as practical training and courses. There were 30 students in the first group and their majors were electronics and agricultural machines. CONACYT has contracts with two other U.S. institutions--the American University and the Economics Institute in Boulder--to offer their students a three-six-month academic orientation program. CONACYT is not, at present, interested in establishing any new institutional agreements.

CONACYT grants cover tuition, health insurance, and a monthly maintenance stipend which ranges between $700-$1,000 depending on the academic level and the number of dependents.

I have been using the term scholarship; however, what CONACYT really offers is an educational loan with a five percent interest rate which students have up to three times the length of their study to repay. However, incentives are offered to those who enter the work force in certain areas such as:

University teaching or research	-	100% forgiven
Projects of importance to the country	-	90%
For the Government in the Provinces	-	60%
For the Government in the Federal District	-	50%
Private Sector	-	25-40%

CONACYT is identified as the major scholarship agency charged with the task of developing the badly needed human resources. There are other entities that share this responsibility. Chart 5 lists these other agencies with concise information that might be of interest to you.

Study Abroad

Of all the Latin American countries hosting study-abroad programs, Mexico tops the list with over 35 U.S. college-sponsored programs. That number is increasing annually. Most programs, whether they be summer or academic year, fall into one of three basic categories:

1. Programs which combine study at a foreign institution with an option for regularly scheduled courses as well as special interest courses arranged specifically for the group. Teaching responsibilities are usually a combination of both local and U.S. faculty. The majority of programs fall into this class.

2. In fully integrated programs, students enroll in regularly offered academic courses taught by the host institution. For these programs, a high degree of language competence is required.

3. Island programs are those in which all courses are are taught by accompanying U.S. faculty or local professors engaged specifically for the program. This type of program has declined over the years.

In general, Mexican universities, mainly the private ones, are interested in hosting more study-abroad programs. Summer study has long been a popular and exciting way to know Mexico. Most programs have centered in Saltillo, Cuernavaca, Mexico City, and San Miguel Allende.

The Cuernavaca programs specialize in intensive Spanish language training and usually offer the student four-five hours of classes per day. They also tend to be the most flexible, beginning a new cycle each Monday.

If your institution is interested in setting up a study-abroad program in Mexico, please call or write the IIE/Mexico office and we will be happy to assist you with your planning.

Conclusion

If we want to participate in Mexico's future, we, in the international education community, have the prime opportunity to do so. Mexico and the United States have the chance to demonstrate and prove their sincerity in a field traditionally above suspicion. For other areas of our society, it will not be so easy. Perhaps through educational exchange, we will become more appreciative of our neighbor, and they, in turn, will have a new confidence in us.

CHART 1

APPENDIX II

NINE CONACYT PRIORITY AREAS

AND

NEW SCHOLARSHIPS AWARDED - 1980

		%
BASIC RESEARCH	493	11
AGRICULTURE, ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND FORESTRY	383	9
FISHING	87	2
NUTRITION AND HEALTH	509	12
ENERGY SOURCES	142	3
INDUSTRY	809	19
CONSTRUCTION, TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATIONS	263	6
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT (SOCIAL SCIENCES)	1,026	24
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	614	14
TOTAL	4,326	100%

CONACYT PROGRAM ANALYSIS
JANUARY, 1981

CHART 2

CONACYT PROJECTED SCHOLARSHIPS 1981-1982

AREAS	1981	1982	TOTAL 1981 - 1982	%
BASIC RESEARCH	671	735	1,406	12
AGRICULTURE, ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND FORESTRY	791	858	1,649	14
FISHING	178	244	422	4
NUTRITION AND HEALTH	566	622	1,188	10
ENERGY SOURCES	453	545	998	9
INDUSTRY	1,197	1,302	2,499	22
CONSTRUCTION, TRANSPORTATION, AND COMMUNICATIONS	459	493	952	8
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT (SOCIAL SCIENCES)	536	564	1,100	9
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	336	347	683	6
LANGUAGES	413	290	703	6
TOTAL	5,600	6,000	11,600	100%

CHART #3

Priority Areas of CONACYT

With Sub-Areas

Basic Research

Biology
Physics
Biochemistry
Physiology
Information Systems
Astronomy
Mathematics
Chemistry
Computer Science
Statistiscs
Surveying

2. Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Forestry

Agribusiness
Agronomy
Forestry
Veterinary Medicine
Silviculture
Water Use and Conservation
Zoology
Hydrology
Photogrammetry and Geodesy
Meteorology
Photogrammetry
Geodesy

3. Fishing

Fisheries
Marine Sciences

4. Nutrition and Health

Bioengineering
Nursing
Sanitary Engineering
Environmental Biology
Food Technology
Biomedical Sciences Research
Ecology
Medicine
Orthodontics

5. Energy Sources

Electrical Engineering
Petroleum Engineering and Petrochemistry
Nuclear Engineering
Geophysics
Geology

6. Industry

Quality Control
Industrial Design
Management
Electronics Engineering
Industrial Management
Mechanical Engineering
Metallurgy
Mining Engineering
Materials Engineering
Instrumentation (Electrical Engineering)
Hydraulics Engineering
Arts and Crafts
Distribution Systems (Systems Engineeri
Electrochemistry
Plastics and Polymers
Maintenance Engineering

7. Construction, Transportation, and Communications

Aeronautical Engineering
Civil Engineering
Transportation Engineering
Mechanical Drawing
Telecommunications

8. Social Development (Social Sciences)

Mass Communications
Education
Philosophy
Geography
Anthropology
Archeology
Political Science
Demography
Economics
History of Linguistics

(8. Social Development (Social Sciences), continued)

Psychology
Sociology
Social Work
Tourism
Library Science
Computer Science
Information Systems
Law
Literature

9. Public Administration

Public Administration
Administration
International Business
Banking Systems
Management Information Systems

TOTAL NUMBER OF SCHOLARSHIPS*-1980

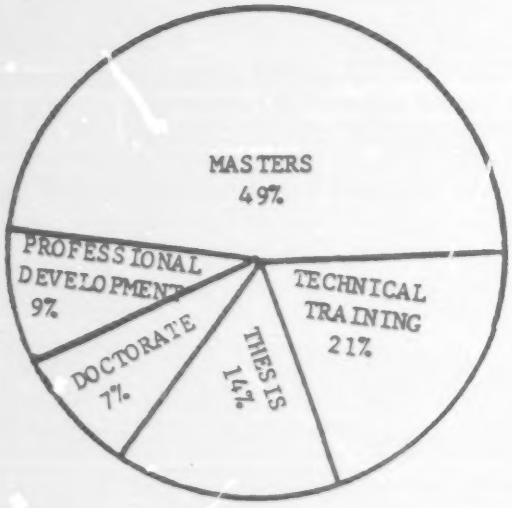
LEVELS

PLACE OF STUDY

*Includes renewals-total approximately 8,000

NEW SCHOLARSHIPS AWARDED IN 1980*

LEVELS



PLACE OF STUDY

* total-4,326

CHART 5

MEXICAN AGENCIES THAT GRANT FINANCIAL AID AND THEIR 1980 PARTICIPATION

AGENCY	ADDRESS	AREAS OF PARTICIPATION	# SCHOLARSHIPS GRANTED	%
CONACYT[1]	AVE. INSURGENTES SUR#1677 MEXICO 20, D.F.	SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY, NATIONAL PRIORITY AREAS	4,326	59.0
S.E.P.[2]	BRASIL #31 MEXICO 1, D.F.	EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT	1,215	16.6
U.N.A.M.[3]	CIUDAD UNIVERSITARIA MEXICO 20, D.F.	GENERAL	1,055	14.4
SECRETARY OF FOREIGN RELATIONS	FLORES MAGON #1 MEXICO 3, D.F.	FINE ARTS, PHILOSOPHY	282	3.8
BANK OF MEXICO	BOLIVAR #15 MEXICO 1, D.F.	EDUCATIONAL LOANS FOR ENGINEERING, ECONOMICS& BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION	250	3.4
I.P.N.[4]	AVE. DE LAS GRANJAS#683 MEXICO 16, D.F.	DEVELOPMENT OF I.P.N. SCIENCE PROGRAMS	121	1.7
ANUIES[5]	AVE. INSURGENTES SUR#2133	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	84	1.1
TOTAL			7,333	100.00

1. National Council of Science and Technology
2. Ministry of Public Education
3. National Autonomous University of Mexico
4. National Politecnical Institute
5. National Association of Universities and Institutes of Higher Learning

MARCH, 1981

APPENDIX III

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL PROFILE April, 1981
MEXICO

General:

Compulsory education: ages 6-14; free at public schools.
Education's proportion of the national budget: 13.74%.(1981)
0-25 age group as a percent of the total national population: 66.6%(1980)

Primary Education:

6 years, standard track for all students.
Enrollment: Public-15,395,471 (94%), Private-251,855 (6%)(1979)
Percent of 6-13 age group enrolled: 75.23%
Certificate or diploma: Certificado de Educación Pública

Secondary Education:

3 year basic cycle-grades 7-9, standard and technical tracks.
2-3 year upper cycle-grades 10-12, preparatoria universitaria, preparatoria técnica, escuela normal (normal school teacher training). The two-year preparatories have the same curriculum and number of courses as the three-year, but condensed into a two-year program.
Enrollment: Public-3,781,915 (86%), Private-597,085 (14%).
Percentage of the 12-17 age group enrolled: 76.65%
Academic year: September to July
Certificates: basic cycle: Certificado de Educación Secundaria, técnico medio-básico. Upper cycle: bachillerato(preparatoria universitaria), técnico medio, Maestro(primary school teacher).
Grading system: 1-10, 6 is passing.

Higher Education:

4-6 years: academic and professional programs.
2-3 years: technical training
1 year : masters
2 years: doctorate
Universities are autonomous, and are members of the National Association of Universities and Institutes of Higher Education(ANUIES), an advisory unit for higher education in planning, coordinating and standardizing. The Ministry of Public Education controls the Institutos Tecnologicos Regionales.
Language of instruction: Spanish
Academic calendar late August-June, with semesters of 14-16 weeks.
Enrollment: Public-865,660 (86.54%), private-134,640(13.46%)
Percentage of 20-25 age group enrolled: 4.6%.
Grading system: 1-10, 6 is passing.
Degrees awarded: licenciado(B.A.), técnico superior; Maestría(masters) and Doctorado(doctorate) at graduate levels.
Academic rank: instructor, profesor asistente, profesor agregado, profesor asociado, profesor catedrático.

HEADQUARTERS 809 UNITED NATIONS PLAZA NEW YORK, N.Y. 10017 U.S. REGIONAL OFFICES ATLANTA, CHICAGO, DENVER, HOUSTON, SAN FRANCISCO, WASHINGTON, D.C. OVERSEAS OFFICES BANGKOK, HONG KONG, LAGOS, MEXICO CITY

Universities:

Universidad Autonoma de Aguascalientes, status: public, location, Aguascalientes, enrollment:1,884, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Baja California Norte, status: public, location,Mexicali enrollment: 11,404, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Baja California Sur, status, public, location La Paz, enrollment:751, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad del Sudeste, Campeche, status; public, location, Campeche, enrollment 955, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Coahuila, status: public, location Saltillo, enrollment: 8,471, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad de Colima, status, public, locationColima, enrollment: 1,113, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Chiapas, status: public, location: Tuxtla Gutierrez, enrollment: 2,988, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Chihuahua, status: public, location;Chihuaha, enrollment: 8,075, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Mexico, status: public, location: Mexico City, enrollment: 300,000, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma Metropolitana, status: public, location: Azcapotzalco, Iztapalapa, Xochimilco, enrollment: 16,147, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Instituto Politecnico Nacional, status: public, location: Mexico City, enrollment: 78,421, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Juarez del Estado de Durango, status: public, location: Durango, enrollment: 4,166, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad de Guanajuato, status: public, location , Guanajuato, enrollment 4,115, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Guerrero, status: public, location, Chilpancingo, enrollment:
Universidad Autonoma de Hidalgo, status: public, location, Pachuca, enrollment: 2,849, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad de Guadalajara, status; public, location,Guadalajara, enrollment: 51,126, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Michoacana San Nicolas de Hidalgo, status; public, location:Morelia, enrollment: 18,374, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma del Estado de Morelos, status: public, location,Cuernavaca, enrollment: 4,419, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Nayarit, status: public, location: Tepic, enrollment:3,899 degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Nuevo Leon, status: public, location: Monterrey, enrollment: 42,695, degrees undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma Benito Juarez de Oaxaca, status; public, location: Oaxaca, enrollment: 2,265, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Puebla, status; public, location: Puebla, enrollemt:21,365 degrees undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Queretaro, status: public, location:Queretaro, enrollment: 2,315, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Sinaloa, status: public, location: Culiacan, enrollment: 22,705, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad de Sonora, status: publica, location: Hermosillo, enrollment:7,103 degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma Juarez de Tabasco, status: public, location:Villahermosa, enrollment: 3,241, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Tamaulipas, status; public, location Ciudad Victoria, enrollment 10,005, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Veracruzana, status: public, location: Xalapa, enrollment:37,869, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.(for extensions, see ANUIES)

Universidad Autonoma de Chapingo, status: public, location: State of Mexico, enrollment: 2,662, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma del Estado de Mexico, status: public, location: Toluca, enrollment: 34,808, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Ciudad Juarez: status; public, location· Ciudad Juarez, enrollment: 3,459. degrees undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad de Yucatan, status: public, location· Merida, enrollment: 5,731, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma Zacatecas, status: public, location: Zacatecas, enrollment: 4,834, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Iberoamericana, status: private, location: Mexico City, enrollment: 6,612, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad LaSalle, status: private, location Mexico City, enrollment: 4,899, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Autonoma de Guadalajara, status: private, location· Guadalajara, enrollment:· 14,226, degrees undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Tecnologico de Mexico, status: private, location: Mexico City, enrollment 3,263, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad de las Americas status: private, locations: Cholula, Mexico City, enrollment· 2,167, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Instituto Tecnologico Autonomo de Mexico, status: private, location Mexico City, enrollment· 1,667, degrees: graduate, undergraduate.
El Colegio de Mexico, status: private, location: Mexico City, enrollment: 174, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Instituto Allende, status: private, location : San Miguel de Allende, enrollment: small, degrees: undergraduate.
Universidad Anahuac, status: private, location: Mexico City, enrollment: 3,451 degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Instituto Tecnologico de Estudios Superiores Occidente, status: private, location: Guadalajara, enrollment: 1,880, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Instituto Tecnologico de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey, status: private, locations: see ANUIES, enrollment: 13,000, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Instituto Tecnologico Regional, status: public, locations: see SEP, enrollment: 37,000, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Regiomontana, status: private, location: Monterrey, enrollment: 5,200, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad de Monterrey, status, private, location, Monterrey, enrollment: 2,245, degrees: undergraduate, graduate.
Universidad Pedagogica, status: public, location: Mexico City, enrollment: 168,000 degrees: undergraduate, graduate.

Educational Exchange:

Admission of students from abroad: Students must have all documents authorized in the United States by the Mexican Consulate and by the Ministry of Foreign Relations, and again in Mexico by the Ministry of Foreign Relations. Many Mexican universities, both public and private, have study abroad programs stablished with North American universities. In some cases, acceptance of credits at the home institution must be approved prior to study in Mexico. Mexican institutions are most eager to accept students at the graduate level.

Visiting scholars; Requirements vary according to the institution. A valid visa is usually required.

Validation of foreign degrees and transfer of credit: Foreign degrees are given official recognition through review and approval by the Departmento de Revalidación y Incorporación de Estudios. The candidate submits the original of the degree, information on course work, and an official transcript, all translated into Spanish by an official translator and certified by the Mexican Consulate. An entrance exam and Spanish language exam are frequently required.

Agencies awarding scholarships, fellowships, student loans:
CONACYT (National Council for Science and Technology): educational credit for study in areas of national priority.
S.E.P. (Secretary of Public Education): for educational development.
U.N.A.M. (National Autonomous University of Mexico): scholarships at the graduate level in a variety of areas.
Secretary of Foreign Relations: scholarships in the Fine Arts and Philosophy.
Bank of Mexico: Educational loans for Engineering, Economics and Business Administration.
I.P.N. (National Politechnical Institute): graduate scholarships in the sciences.
ANUIES (National Association of Universities and Institutes of Higher Learning) limited number of partial scholarships for professional development.

Number of nationals presently studying in the U.S.: 6,400

Main In-Country information source on U.S. education: Institute of International Education, Londres 16, 2°piso, Mexico 6, D.F.

Bibliography: The Educational System of Mexico by Clark C.Gill, University of Texas, published by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.
Anuario Estadistico, 1979, published by the National Association of Universities and Institutes of Higher Learning, Avenida Insurgentes Sur 2133, Mexico 20, D.F.

SOUTH AMERICA

SIGNS OF REVOLUTION IN SOUTH AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

Daniel Heyduk

Although South American higher education is changing significantly, little notice has been taken of the nature and extent of this change--perhaps because its causes are largely local and not a part of international development planning or funding. Political stability (or instability), rates of economic growth, the relative roles of the public and private sectors in South American economies, the nature and quality of educational institutions, and the demand for foreign study are all implicated in the changes currently in progress. The following is an outline of the general situation for the region, brief notes on specific countries, and an assessment of prospects.

The Problem

The crucial factors in South American education are economic growth and population growth. The employment market for graduates is not as strong a factor as in the United States due to the lack of effective feedback from employment to education. Within the Third World, Latin America has sustained, despite petroleum price increases and inflation, a good rate of economic growth. The increase in gross national product has averaged 5.8 percent per year in recent years as compared to some 3 percent in the United States. This has meant a growing middle class and growing demand for that essentially middle-class commodity, education. In Latin America, where most middle-class postsecondary students attend public universities, such demand is traditionally focused upon the government. In Latin America the relation of public to private education is opposite to what it is in the United States. U.S. private schools have only a minor role in primary and secondary education, but become more important at the postsecondary level. In Latin America the proportions are reversed, especially for middle-class students. Most middle-class students attend private primary and secondary school, but go on to public university.

Higher education, traditionally a public concern, was until recently provided only to a small elite. That elite has now become a growing middle class, which in class logic "pays its dues" by privately financing primary and secondary education and expects the government to finance university study. Given that regionally only five percent of the relevant age group is currently enrolled in higher education, the potential public burden is enormous if the growing demand is met by government. Since 1970, this demand for higher education and the expansion of enrollments in higher

education have grown faster than in either primary or secondary levels, and demand is outpacing enrollment. Inevitably, as universities grow there is greater dissatisfaction with the system--from those who don't get in and also from those who do, who complain of the decline of educational standards under too rapid growth.

In Ecuador, for example, universities receive government assistance based on their total student enrollment. However, those students in fields requiring expensive equipment and facilities cost more to educate than others. Thus universities tend to over-enroll students in the low-cost humanities in order to finance a few students in the sciences. The Brazilian government allowed virtually unlimited growth of low-quality private institutions in order to rapidly accommodate increasing demand, but then had to slow enrollment growth substantially thereafter as a consequence of imposing needed quality standards. Brazilian enrollment growth thus dropped from 111 percent for 1970-74 to 37 percent for 1974-78. In Venezuela, the problem was solved by exporting more tnan 15,000 undergraduates on full scholarships. Here; however, as in other countries, the purpose of higher education received less attention than accommodating the immediate demand. Returning graduates now find a bleak employment market in their fields--such as petroleum and chemical engineering--while Colombians are immigrating to take positions in civil engineering since too few Venezuelans are trained in those fields.

On a regional basis one might also cite the large numbers of architects, economists, and lawyers who emerge each year (1) because these fields are traditional, (2) because these fields are over-enrolled, and (3) because there is insufficient understanding of the relation of higher education to employment. Problems exist with higher education both as a consumption good and as a production good. In either case such problems carry considerable political and economic import.

One response to the demand for higher education and to the employment problem was the attempt at establishing non-university postsecondary institutions--technical institutes offering two-three-year programs in fields desperately needed for national development. These have had problems from the beginning; however, primarily because students prefer a university degree. Under-enrollment in alternative postsecondary institutions is thus another aspect of the larger problem.

These problems of public higher education have increased tne politicization of public universities. Student political activism, long a Latin American tradition, has grown with the campus population and the political issue of education itself. This; however, is not the educational revolution alluded to earlier but is more properly another part of the problem.

The Reaction

The crisis in public higher education has already drawn a response. The political function of universities has been repressed in Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, and Bolivia. In those and other countries the movement toward attending private universities is growing for those who can afford

the cost. Although private higher education is more costly, the student may depend on the institution's stability and can plan to finish a course of study in the requisite number of years. Public university students must cope with frequent disruptions of the curriculum and may need extra years to complete their academic program.

Governments are more strongly emphasizing student loans as a form of public subsidy for higher education. While a system of direct grants to universities obliges the student to attend public institutions to realize the full benefit of government support, educational loans often make it possible for students to meet the higher tuition costs of private universities.

Several have reformed or are about to reform their higher education systems. Notable in these reforms are new attempts to make non-university postsecondary education more acceptable to students and to redesign fiscal-support patterns for higher education. A closer look at individual cases will help illustrate the trend.

Venezuela

Venezuela provides a good example of the problems currently affecting Latin American higher education. Almost 70 percent of the population is under 25 years of age. Of a total 2.3 million people in the 17-25-year-old age group, only 265,000 are enrolled in higher education. Yet this is much more than formerly and thus constitutes a heavy burden on public institutions which account for 90 percent of enrollment. Venezuela spends more on education today that it did on the entire national budget in 1970.

Venezuela continues to have several publicly funded scholarship programs for study abroad (Fundacion Gran Mariscal de Ayacucho, FONINVES, CONICIT). However, the largest of these--"Fundayacucho"--has recently inaugurated a program of student loans. Greater priority is to be placed on the building of Venezuelan academic institutions while foreign study support is re-oriented to emphasize graduate rather than undergraduate study.

A reform of the education system is in progress: new systems of primary and secondary education have already been announced and postsecondary changes are currently being planned. Most notable thus far is the institution of two separate tracks in secondary education--one for technical training and another for traditional "liberal arts." It remains to be seen how these tracks will be integrated with higher education or how the higher education system itself will be changed. However, enrollment demands remain high, even with the foreign study scholarship programs, and non-university postsecondary institutions have not been successful in attracting students. Such problems will certainly be addressed.

Colombia

Like Venezuela, Colombia also has a predominantly young population, 65 percent of which is under 25 years old. Ten percent of the 18-25-year-old age group are enrolled in higher education, but unlike Venezuela more than half the enrollment is in private institutions. This is made possible in part by an ambitious, publicly financed, student loan program which currently benefits approximately 60,000 students. Instability and politicization of public universities has also strengthened private higher education. A recent higher education reform contains provisions that will give the government greater control of educational institutions. The reform also attempts to make non-university postsecondary institutions more viable by clarifying their educational role and providing for the full transferability of their degrees as credit toward further higher education.

Brazil

Increasing demand for higher education in Brazil led to rapid growth of private institutions, which currently account for 62 percent of enrollment. Despite a large federal budget for higher education, including an ambitious program which has provided thousands of full scholarships for graduate study abroad for Brazilian faculty, the financing of higher education is in crisis. In November, 1980, federal universities throughout Brazil were closed by faculty striking for higher salaries, educational reform, and larger education budgets.

The failure to synchronize education and employment is also an issue: Brazil graduates more engineers per capita than the United States, has 16 engineers for each technician, and six doctors for every nurse.

Chile

The Chilean government, recently noted for its repression of political activity at universities, has taken the most ambitious steps toward substantive change in higher education. This change is directed at the core educational problems common to the region: financing of higher education and linking education to employment needs. Chile's success with free-market economic principles and the government's often expressed philosophy that public services, including education, should be privately financed wherever possible, serve as a model for change.

Chilean universities, which had until 1980 received direct government grants, are now to be "indirectly" financed, a process which includes the charging of tuition calculated to reflect true educational costs. Between 1980 and 1985 direct government support to universities is to decline by 50 percent. To replace this support, universities will have to compete to enroll students from among the best 20,000 determined by scores on the national admissions examination. Students from this group will receive government grants which universities will capture by enrolling the students. The government has also instituted a program of student loans to assist students who are not among

the top 20,000 nationally each year. The new system attempts to establish academic competition based on cost and quality of academic programs. The use of educational loans may also stimulate greater attention to the employment market when recipients plan their postsecondary studies, since loans will have to be repaid from future income.

A 1981 higher education law includes liberal provisions for the establishment of new postsecondary institutions. This presumably will enhance competition and will further embody free market principles, for new institutions will not receive any direct government support. Chilean universities have already taken steps to reduce administrative staff and to otherwise cut educational costs in anticipation of future competition.

Having thus grappled with enrollment demand, financing, and employment's needs in higher education, the Chilean government has begun a process which may have as much influence abroad as the country's recent economic turnaround. The new law continues to prescribe political activity on university campuses but does not limit university instruction to prescribed fields of study as has been reported elsewhere (Science, vol. 211, pp. 1403-1404, 1981).

Argentina

The Argentine government has also recently issued new higher education regulations. Among them are provisions for charging tuition at public universities and continuing tight government control of university affairs. Whether the Argentines will go further along the educational policy road that Chile has taken remains to be seen.

Other Countries of the Region

Ecuador and Peru face enrollment, politicization, and financing problems similar to those described for the region in general and may be expected to attempt official remedies soon. Bolivian universities were closed in July, 1980 as a part of the coup in which the military took control of the government, and they have only begun to open on a limited basis more than one year later. Paraguayan and Uruguayan higher education systems are under the control of the respective governments and do not currently experience the pressures common elsewhere in the region.

The Future

The composite picture for South America shows problems of changing from a traditional higher education system training a small elite to mass education which as yet is poorly adapted to national needs. It seems unlikely that the tradition of government subsidized higher education can survive this transition. Thus the changes in alternative financing recently instituted in Chile are important for the whole region. The same changes carry the additional potential benefit of rationalizing the relationship between the output of the universities and national manpower needs. The foundation of this new system in the ideology of free-market capitalism is perhaps the most revolutionary aspect of the entire scheme. Other Latin American governments, which lean toward central planning, are unlikely to embrace this ideology as a solution to educational problems. The problems must be addressed nonetheless.

Although politically unpopular, a movement toward significant tuition-based financing of public higher education is probably in prospect. It is more likely to be instituted by regimes such as those of Argentina and Chile which depend less than others upon popular support. The democratic governments in Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela, and that emerging in Brazil will most likely be forced to a de facto approximation of tuition-based financing by awarding student loans that may be used at private institutions together with adding slow increments to public university tuition.

Political activism and other sources of instability in public higher education are likely to continue, if not intensify. This should further strengthen private institutions and should also lead to the strengthening of non-academic training, principally by business and industry. It may lead to greater government control of public universities despite the ideal of university autonomy.

The role of international education in this context will be significant. Insufficient enrollment capacity in South American higher education systems coupled with instability and rising costs are already responsible for a substantial international flow of undergraduate students. This movement, largely directed toward the United States, should continue to grow. Due to its high cost, graduate education is not likely to expand rapidly in South America. The exceptions to this rule are Brazil, which has already attained substantial graduate capacity, and Venezuela, which might develop its capacity through re-allocation of resources from undergraduate foreign study scholarships to national institution building. It is worthy to note that Brazilian demand for U.S. graduate education has been high during that country's process of graduate-level institution building. Brazil is third among South American countries in number of students enrolled in U.S. institutions and almost 70 percent of Brazilian students in the United States are enrolled in graduate study. Governments and official agencies in South America generally stress foreign graduate education as that most appropriate to national development needs.

Supplementary training through non-degree study and short courses will grow in demand as South American employers seek to build staff skills not being supplied by the local educational system. U.S. institutions; however, will have to adapt educational programs and resources to meet this need.

In light of the changes taking place there should be increased interest in adapting U.S. community college and technical school models to the Latin American educational environment. Although this approach has not met with notable success as yet, South American educational planners are persisting and will likely intensify their work in the future. The relationship between U.S. community colleges and their local business and industry may be particularly relevant to Latin American trends.

Considerable interest has been manifest in a return to international inter-institutional linkages. Such arrangements can meet Latin American needs for graduate study and faculty development while serving U.S. institution's interests in research, consulting and global awareness. Careful planning and matching of interests will be required if such linkages are to be satisfactory.

The relationship between United States and South American higher education can and should go beyond the U.S. admissions offices. There are considerable opportunities for design of inter-institutional student programs, special curricula to meet short term training needs, graduate programs relevant to South Amrican development priorities, research, and consulting. In this time of change South American receptivity will be found to be high.

ON THE RECRUITMENT OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

Joan H. Joshi

Let's turn to the process surrounding the recruitment of foreign students. As you are very well aware, the last 15-20 years has seen a considerable change in U.S. higher education and in the work of an admissions office. It is said to have become for many a buyer's rather than a seller's market. In the past, U.S. higher education was in great demand and facilities were rapidly expanded to accommodate the many applicants. Today, applications are down and they are expected to drop still more--although we do not yet have a clear perspective on the college-going habits of the next generation.

On many campuses, the admissions process has altered gradually over these decades from selection to active solicitation of students, with an increasing use of marketing techniques. At the same time, there has been a growing demand for higher education in many parts of the world, a demand that often cannot be supplied at home. These two concurrent conditions could be complimentary or they could lead to the use of competitive tactics which will discredit and undermine U.S. higher education. In fact, a recent issue of Change magazine suggested that there might be a price war in U.S. higher education; not a happy bit of news if you happen to be the parent of a college freshman. But the prospects for those trying to keep U.S. higher education solvent do not appear very joyful either.

Clearly, student recruitment has been an honorable activity in this country and it can certainly be carried out honorably abroad if it is done with sensitivity. Since most foreign students can name only six or a dozen U.S. institutions, it is indeed essential that U.S. higher education make its diverse components known so that an appropriate, intelligent choice can be made among them by the thousands of foreign students that are contemplating U.S. study. But how can this be done ethically, effectively, economically, and in the best interests of both the students and U.S. institutions?

For the comments I will make, I have drawn upon the work of a number of my colleagues at sister organizations and have prepared for you a checklist of do's and don'ts. I have drawn upon the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB), for example, which has produced a very excellent booklet called "Guidelines for the Recruitment of Foreign Students" (available from CEEB, P.O. Box 2815, Princeton, NJ 08541). I have drawn upon the experiences of colleagues at AMIDEAST and IIE, and at Fulbright Commissions and other advisory centers overseas that deal with foreign student inquiries. I have also drawn upon the National Liaison Committee for Foreign Student Admissions (NLC), an organization comprised of IIE, American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO), National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), CEEB, and the Council of Graduate Schools (CGS). Its recommendations are reproduced in "Foreign Student Recruitment, Realities and Recommendations" (available for $6.50 from CEEB, address above). Some of you may also know that NAFSA expects to introduce a comprehensive set of standards on this subject before the end of the summer.

What I have for you are really three checklists: suggestions as to what institutions ought to do before they look abroad for students; what they should do in the recruitment process itself; and, perhaps most important, what they should not do.

As a first step, institutions should assess their strengths and weaknesses with respect to foreign students and, more specifically, students from particular parts of the world. Undergraduates in Brazil, for example, infrequently seek study opportunities in the United States--there being an adequate number of study places at this level at home; whereas in Hong Kong, which has an excellent and growing secondary education system, the demand for undergraduate education overseas is very great as the local higher educational institutions can absorb only two percent of the age group.

Second, decide how many students, at what level of academic achievement, and at what level of English language proficiency, you will seek. Will you seek only those who want a degree or can you offer nondegree programs? What geographic distribution will be best for your institution, in view of your overall domestic enrollment?

Third, design an admissions policy based on written criteria, which makes the same competitive demands on foreign students as on U.S. applicants.

Fourth, develop a credentials' evaluation capacity on campus or seek access to one elsewhere that will enable you to make a judgment about a potential student's English language skill as well as the appropriate academic placement level.

Fifth, develop a foreign student advisory service which will be able to help the students cope with social and academic problems that will arise as they adjust to a new cultural environment and a new system of education.

Sixth, decide whether you will need to offer an orientation program especially designed for incoming foreign students and whether your institution can undertake any remedial English language training.

Seventh, design an evaluation process which you will apply in due course to test whether earlier steps have been satisfactorily planned and appropriately pursued.

And finally, seek the concurrence with all of these decisions from all parts of your institution: every school, college, and department which might be involved in educating the foreign students, so that these do not become policies enunciated by the administration but ignored by those who in fact will be in direct touch with the students.

Once these steps have been undertaken, you are ready to start the actual recruitment process. Here is another checklist:

Presumably you have already selected the countries on which you wish to focus. Now you must become familiar with them so as to perceive their needs and have some understanding of the environment from which your students will come and to which they will return.

A very practical suggestion made by my colleagues is that you prepare printed material designed specifically for foreign students. You can use this material to answer the blue letters you receive and, more important, send it in quantity to advisory/counseling centers in the parts of the world from which you hope to attract students. The overseas counselors can distribute it and the students in turn can take it home to share with their parents, who will be paying the bills for higher education. The booklet from the College Board lists a number of items which should be included in such material, including an outline for a brochure, should you decide to prepare one. It recommends that you include a brief history and description of your institution; the geographic location, the characteristics of the local community, the climate--often a very important criterian in selection; a statement of the institution's policy on the admission of foreign applicants; the curricula, certificates, diplomas and degrees which your institution offers, how long it takes to complete each type of program, and an indication as to which programs have professional accreditation; application procedures and the deadline dates--a suggestion has been made that you take cognizance here of the length of time it takes for papers to go back and forth in the international mails--and include the academic calendar, including the dates of enrollment and of vacation periods; the costs--the real costs--of attending your institution, including tuition, fees, and room and board including the costs that may incur during vacation periods when your dorms are closed, your financial aid policies and opportunities which are realistically available for students from abroad; your English language proficiency requirements including examinations and the availability (either at your institution or at neighboring institutions) for intensive or remedial English programs; academic aptitude and achievement tests; the kind of clothing that is needed if students are coming from a different climate; the housing you can provide on campus or the help that you will offer to students if you don't have on-campus housing for them; health insurance requirements; employment regulations and employment opportunities in your community; visa and other legal requirements; and, not least, the advisory services that you intend to offer the students when they finally reach your campus. As you prepare this material, use language that is understandable to a foreign student; for example, avoid words such as transcript and credit hours, which are terms not readily understood by foreign nationals.

Dr. Brohm has some excellent suggestions to offer about these special materials. See "Informational Literature on U.S. Educational Institutions for the Foreign Student" by John Brohm, which follows.

The third step in the recruitment process is to send these brochures and a full set of your academic catalogs to counseling offices overseas. Such offices exist in most countries: they are run by IIE in some places, by AMIDEAST in others; Fulbright Commissions in many cities around the world provide counseling services; United States International Communication Agency (USICA) offices elsewhere do the same. A list of such offices is printed in a small IIE book entitled "A Practical Guide for Foreign Students." (Copies are available for $2.50 from the Communications Division, IIE, 809 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017). If you cannot make an on-site visit, send the materials with a cover letter that outlines to the student adviser your institution's special strengths in relation to foreign students and just exactly the kind of students you seek to enroll.

Fourth, if you can, plan a visit to the region on which you wish to focus. This will help create a first-hand impression of your institution on the part of the adviser who will then be able to pass that on to the students who come to him. If a visit is feasible, choose someone from your faculty or administration who is culturally sensitive to the area in question and someone able to represent the entire institution knowledgeably. Make advance contact with an agency which is well established in the particular country: IIE, AMIDEAST, the North American Association in Venezuela, and Fulbright Commissions located almost everywhere are well known in the cities and countries in which they operate. They have a reputation on which you can lean and can help you make the best use of your time. Plan the trip well in advance; select an appropriate time, watch out for holidays overseas that are not familiar here, and leave enough time--about one week--in each city. This should be sufficient time to get to know something about the country and to make appropriate visits to high schools and to postsecondary institutions. Fifth, if you have alumni in the area already, use them for follow-up purposes; ask them to talk about your institution to prospective applicants, but make it a point to keep them abreast of recent developments on campus.

It is important to remember that the buyer's market that exists in U.S. higher education is unheard of elsewhere. In the Third World, education is the high privilege of a select few. Therefore students clamor at the doors of the academe rather than universities promoting themselves in the marketplace. Since you must resort to an activity unfamiliar in most cultures, you must do so with circumspection, in a way which preserves your own credibility and the credibility of U.S. higher education in general. My colleagues have noted a few activities which should <u>not</u> be undertaken.

do not arrive in your chosen country, advertise your presence in the newspapers, and agree to meet students and parents in hotel rooms;

do not offer admission or financial aid on the spot to students you encounter;

do not use fee-for-enrollment agents and, indeed, don't send your catalogs to prospective agents who solicit them and who are likely to use them to represent you abroad without authorization.

Last, and most significant of all, do not accept students whom you cannot properly serve. A disgruntled student returned to his home country will create the worst possible press for your institution, whereas a happy and satisfied one provides the kind of word-of-mouth advertising that you cannot otherwise obtain. In due course, you willl see him followed by his sisters and his cousins and his aunts for a generation or so to come.

The Institute sponsored two trips in Fall, 1980, for groups of admissions officers and other administrators from U.S. higher educational institutions; one to Southeast Asia, including Bangkok, Hong Kong, Kuala Lumpur, and Singapore, and another to Mexico City and Monterrey. The trips lasted one to two weeks and another series are planned for Fall, 1981. There will be a trip to Mexico City, Monterrey and Guadalajara in late September, another to Colombia and Venezuela immediately thereafter, and a third to Southeast Asia following last year's route.

The purpose of these trips is to represent U.S. higher education generally and to convey its strengths to students, parents and counselors, to introduce the participants' institutions, and to enable the participants to learn something about the parts of the world visited and their educational needs. The trips include stops at secondary schools, postsecondary institutions, ministries of education, and other large scholarship program organizations, with a "college night" in each city. These represent one of several activities that IIE has undertaken with respect to the recruitment of foreign students; this seminar is, of course, another.

The third activity revolves around our ability, willingness, and eagerness to offer information to you. You can write to Daniel Heyduk in New York--who concentrates on South America--or to our various overseas offices who can supply data on those parts of the world, help plan individual trips, make contacts for you, or provide a place where you can meet students, conduct interviews, etc.

The organized group trips that I have described are available to the Educational Associates of IIE. There are about 520 accredited U.S. colleges and universities who join IIE annually to enjoy a number of special perquisites, but more importantly to support our informational and promotional activities. The Educational Associates receive free copies of each of IIE's publications including a number of reference books serving both the foreign student market and the study abroad area; the quarterly magazine, The World Higher Education COMMUNIQUE, which keeps the U.S. academic community abreast of educational developments overseas; and institutional reports prepared on individual academic institutions abroad which send large numbers of students to this country. We also are able, as is AMIDEAST, to interview candidates for your institutions. We are available to consult both overseas and in our six regional offices around the United States on any aspect of international education. In fact I should mention, since not a great deal of attention has been given to it today, that if there are among you any who are interested in organizing some kind of study-abroad activity and need some information on what country and what institution you might wish to work with, we would be very glad to offer guidance.

The Educational Associate membership fees support those activities I have described that are directly beneficial to U.S. institutions, but also a good many which benefit them indirectly. For example, our offices in Hong Kong, Bangkok, and Mexico City, in the year ending June, 1980, saw 140,000 students pass through their doors seeking information on U.S. higher education. In New York and in our regional offices in this country, another 40,000 were served. Our representatives overseas also act as resource consultants to other counselors in the areas they cover. Daniel Heyduk produces a quarterly Counselor's Newsletter which is distributed not only to his clients in South America but to counseling offices around the world. We are in a position, through our overseas offices, to represent U.S. higher education abroad; for example, Dr. Brohm has been instrumental in promoting recognition of U.S. degrees by the Hong Kong civil service. We are able to collect information on educational developments which we present to the U.S. academic community through meetings such as this and through the quarterly World Higher Education COMMUNIQUE.

In addition, we have two new programs that I think might be of interest to you and which I especially want to bring to your attention. One is the International Faculty Lecture Bureau. This is a matching service which enables us to help small institutions schedule guest appearances by foreign scholars who are in this country under a variety of auspices--some of them on senior Fulbrights, others on grants from such organizations as the National Science Foundation and the Japan Foundation. The service is based on our discovery that 70 percent of the foreign scholars settle at one of the 28 major research institutions and our belief that they would find great enrichment for themselves and add enrichment to other campuses if they could relay their expertise to the smaller institutions. This year matches were made without charge to either registering scholar or host institution; for the next academic year, (1981-82) there will be a small fee to institutions to help cover our operational costs. Some fascinating people signed on this year, in a variety of fields and with a great readiness to offer their talents in a single lecture, a few days in residence, or a faculty or student seminar series. There need be very little money involved in all of this. The visiting faculty are almost always willing to come without honoraria. You would need to cover their travel expenses, of course, but in most cases they would be delighted to spend a night in a faculty home.

The second program is the Register for International Service in Education (RISE)--a very new program just advertised to the academic community in January, 1980. This is an effort to provide U.S. academicians who wish to teach, consult, or do research overseas with access to opportunities in academic institutions or other research centers overseas. It is also designed to help those institutions locate the expatriate talent they need. The predominant focus, of course, is on the developing world. Again, our role is to match qualifications with open positions. Americans who are interested in such opportunities may register with us and be fed into our computer for an annual fee of $35. We will then send printouts of their qualifications to institutions overseas without any charge to those institutions. Subsequent negotiations are up to the two parties.

I would like to close by asking those who are Educational Associates or those interested in becomeing so to keep us informed of any needs not being filled by IIE or by other organizations in the field. If you cannot locate information and wish there were a publication to meet your need, for example, we would like to know about it.

INFORMATIONAL LITERATURE ON U.S. EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FOREIGN STUDENT

John F. Brohm

The Institute of International Education has maintained overseas offices since 1962 and their principal activity has been the advising of local students about U.S. educational opportunities. In order to counsel effectively, these and the several other responsible agencies which maintain offices must possess a collection of "current" U.S. college catalogs. These can only be maintained in a relatively representative condition through the exertion of great effort on the part of the staff. While they are absolutely necessary for an effective advisory operation, the character of the service they perform is frequently misunderstood by U.S. admissions and other college personnel.*

The college catalog in an overseas student advisory office is an important reference resource which, when removed by the student, reduces and eventually destroys the usefulness of the library for other students. Moreover, while occasional college catalogs are written with some promotional component in mind, the majority are constructed along the lines of any proper reference publication and emphasize a straightforward presentation of facts concerning the institution and its curriculum. Once placed on shelves with thousands of comparable publications representing an equal number of institutions, these publications have very limited value in influencing student decisions about where to begin the search for an appropriate place to study. They do serve to answer questions about the institution after sufficient interest has been raised. Only occasionally, and then by chance, do their catalogs stimulate interest in the institution if none previously existed.

Identifying the Institution

Not every U.S. institution is interested in increasing its foreign student enrollment, although many are. Even among those that are satisfied with the size of their international student body, there are many that would appreciate a greater diversity by nationality among those to be enrolled in the future. In much of the world, only a very few of the most prestigious U.S. institutions are known by name, and the responsible U.S. college officials are thus faced with the task of identifying their institutions to a foreign audience before they can even arouse their interest. My experience has been that the college catalog, for some of the reasons already noted, is not a very useful way to promote student interest.

*Many institutions are currently being misled into the belief that microfiche reproductions are an adequate substitute for actual catalogs. This is only true where low-volume student use is characteristic of the operation. In an installation like IIE/Hong Kong, which receives upwards of 40,000 student visits per year, one would need dozens of microfiche readers to satisfy the demand--along with many copies of the annual microfiche collections. This would be financially unsupportable.

Catalog Alternatives

Whatever type of publication may be chosen as an informational/promotional device, it is important that it be made available in quantity. It must also be made available in the most suitable places: where it will be received with credibility, sought out by the many, and not be misused as evidence of agent status on the part of the distributor. IIE, the International Communication Agency (USICA), AMIDEAST, and similar organizations all have overseas offices where distribution of this material would be suitable.

If large quantities of literature are to be dispatched overseas, the natural temptation is to produce lightweight flyers or brochures which can easily be mailed abroad, either to individual students directly or to depositories such as those maintained by IIE. I believe this is a mistake. Lightweight publications for regular airmailing do not lend themselves to quality illustrations nor easy reading. Above all, these publications, whatever their format, should have visual impact. This cannot easily be achieved on airmail-weight paper. A calculated risk is therefore involved, but the costs can be reduced considerably by bulk mailings to local installations.

Cost Factors

The typical cost of "recruiting" a foreign student is usually around $600. How many new enrollments must result from a special publication to justify its basic costs? Not a great many, I would suggest, and the longer life of a more substantial publication probably pays off in more viewers per unit, provided that it has the type of visual appeal I believe is important.

Photographs as Sources of Credibility

In order to understand the importance of quality photographs in a publication directed at prospective foreign applicants and their families, some alterations in perspective on the part of the U.S. academic administrator are fundamental. We frequently hear it said that the U.S. academic establishment is by far the largest in the world--which it is--but this is true not only in absolute terms but also in relationship to population. The vast array of U.S. colleges and universities, which are said to constitute almost 50 percent of all such institutions throughout the world, make possible mass education at postsecondary levels which reflect the great affluence of the U.S. economy. This situation is not duplicated elsewhere. To those living in developing countries, such a profusion of institutions is inconceivable unless most of them are of very low quality. Countries like Indonesia and the Philippines, for example, also have large numbers of postsecondary institutions; however, most of them are proprietary in nature and have very limited facilities and faculty. It is therefore assumed, particularly in those countries where higher education is considered elitist and the number of institutions is limited, that U.S. colleges and universities without established international reputations are of the same nature--impoverished in their facilities and seeking only to make a profit from their students.

In actuality, nothing could be further from the truth. Even modestly endowed U.S. liberal arts colleges have facilities and faculties that would astonish the uninitiated student or faculty member from many countries of the world. The highly functional open-stack libraries of the typical U.S. college--generous hours of service, excellent reference sections, liberal loan privileges, and available reading facilities--are virtually unimaginable in any developing country. A promotional publication, from my point of view, might very well make its beginning with professionally composed photographs that illustrate those facilities.

What can be said for libraries can frequently be said for laboratories. Students in many countries make do with laboratory facilities that could hardly serve the needs of secondary schools in the United States. This is as true in the quantitative sense as it is with respect to quality. Where facilities may be shared by two students in a U.S. college laboratory, the same type of facility may have to serve many times that number abroad--or even be used as an illustration for an entire class. The relative luxury of study and experimentation in a U.S. laboratory is not, I believe, difficult to illustrate.

Almost any U.S. college or university that has any kind of campus has invested funds in landscaping, building maintenance, and architectural planning that make most Asian institutions seem seedy and unappealing by comparison. The great wonder to me during my occasional visits to U.S. campuses is the almost unvarying attractiveness of college life as it appears to the visitor from another land. By comparison, many Asian institutions are relatively unattractive architecturally, enormously overcrowded by U.S. standards, and unappealing to Americans for residential purposes--although not by local standards, perhaps, given the demographic problems faced by many Asian nations. Again, overall views of the U.S. campus, honestly illustrating the general appearance of major plant facilities, will quickly bring to the potential foreign applicant a sense of reassurance and help to overcome his initial skepticism about an institution with a previously unknown name.

In seeking to attract the U.S. student applicant, "marketing" the college image tends to emphasize those aspects of campus life which will appeal to the American buyer's market--chiefly sports and leisure-time activity. I would suggest that this approach has much less appeal to foreign students, and particularly to their parents who will be investing what may seem to them to be disproportionate amounts of money in education. The payoff both they and the students anticipate will not generally be found on the football gridiron or in the good looks of some American coed. This is not to say that Asian or other foreign students have no interest in athletic activities, and a good gymnasium can make an effective illustration of useful plant facilities. The point to remember is that these types of illustrations have relatively low priority for a foreign--or certainly an Asian--audience.

If one takes any accredited U.S. college's faculty roster and compares its academic achievements with those of almost any faculty in a developing country in Asia, the disparities are immediately obvious. Actually, there is much more to the story than this. The highly competitive teaching environment in the United States, plus the culturally-demanded egalitarianism of the U.S. way of life, forces U.S. faculty members into an entirely different posture from their Asian counterparts. There is a much higher rate

of interaction between students and faculty on the U.S. campus--and in the U.S. classroom--than is usually possible in Asia. This is an enormous positive value in the teaching process and one that is readily communicated to foreign students--even though a period of adjustment will often be necessary in order for them to derive maximum benefit from the new relationship. But these are modes that can easily be captured by the camera; indeed they are inevitably revealed by any classroom photographs that are candid in nature. It will be helpful if such photographs appear, preferably of faculty members who give the appearance of maturity and sincerity and about whom a brief statement of achievements can be made in a caption adjacent to the photograph.

Statistics Also Tell a Story

I have emphasized the use of photographs chiefly because it is the most frequently ignored or inadequately utilized element in literature dispatched to foreign applicants. One need not, however, depend only upon photographs to make one's point. Simple statistics frequently tell a startling tale for the foreign reader. A typical postsecondary college in a country like Thailand will have a library of less than 25,000 volumes. Provincial universities may have 25,000-150,000 volumes, and the few major universities of the country will have 50,000 to a few hundred thousand. By comparison, a large number of typical U.S. liberal arts colleges have book collections of over 200,000, to say nothing of the number of journal subscriptions maintained. Even more importantly, the number of hours per week in which students have access to these collections and the manner in which access is handled, insures that these are "working" collections--not museums for books as is so often the case in Asian institutions.

Student enrollment at your institution is another important element. The only two universities in Hong Kong have enrollments of not much more than 4,000 undergraduates each. It will astonish many Asian applicants to learn that some U.S. junior colleges, which many think of as institutions that are not to be considered in a postsecondary context, actually enroll as many as 25,000 students. On the other hand, some open-admission institutions in Asia enroll up to 300,000 on a single campus. Other points that should be included are the student-faculty ratio and the proportion of students living on campus. In general, if one lets the facts speak for themselves, however presented, the result will be impressive for the prospective Asian applicant. The point is to attract the readership.

Again, let me emphasize that the quality of the promotional literature will mean something to the reader. Materials which are produced at lowest cost tell a particular story; e.g., who could possibly think of investing $10,000 per year at an institution which provides information on mimeographed copy. Lightweight airmail paper is only a few steps removed from this and is really not that necessary if one is thinking of bulk mailings for local distribution rather than individual responses to blue letters. We are, after all, dealing with the problem of eliciting those blue letters in the first place.

This raises a final question with respect to content. It seems wasteful to me to design promotional literature that does not provide some convenient means for the student to make a response. A preliminary application form or even a final application should be part of the informational package. Not only will it serve to reduce waste correspondence, should the reader decide to apply, but it will also attract the application by providing a convenient first means of communication.

Summary

By way of summary, let me make the major point once again. The sheer number of internationally less-well-known U.S. colleges and universities creates a credibility gap between them and prospective foreign applicants who simply cannot believe that there can be so many institutions of quality in any one country. They know that there are a number of degree and diploma mills in the United States and many institutions of questionable character. The task of the U.S. administrators wishing to close that credibility gap is to produce literature that will reveal the virtues of the particular institution and let the facts speak for themselves. The regular college catalog is usually not suitable for these purposes because it cannot be distributed in quantity and therefore does not reach the hands of the prospective financial sponsors of the student. The answer, then, is to produce literature for wider distribution that will geographically and effectively portray those institutional qualities that are important to the foreign students and their parents. Most accredited U.S. institutions have those qualities in great abundance. All that is needed is the imagination to capture them attractively on paper.